

# **FEASIBILITY TEST OF THE SIMULATION OF A RUNNING TURBINE WITH OPENFOAM**

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To my Grandfather.

*Knowing is not enough, we must apply. Willing is not enough, we must do.*

*Johann Wolfgang von Goethe*



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## ABSTRACT

Field and laboratory studies reviewing the passage of fish through hydroelectric turbines have been object of research over the years. The biggest causes of fish mortality when passing a hydroelectric turbine are described as being the variation of pressure, cavitation, shear stress as well as strike and grinding. Most of the models used to calculate fish mortality are based on the probability of the injury to happen depending on parameters like flow, length of the fish or the angle of the turbine's vanes. But most of these models are so-called black-box-models where the real, physical processes are not shown.

This is where computational fluid dynamics plays an important part. It is possible to model and simulate different structures and in this way also the flow that may occur. Like this, it is possible to model what happens to a fish when passing a turbine, showing the real processes that happens during the passage.

In this work, a four blade propeller turbine is modelled with the software *OpenFOAM* - Open Field Operation and Manipulation. The main focus of the work is on the simulation of the turbine's movement.

Two different approaches with regard to the simulation of the movement were made in order to better comprehend which one could be more suitable and more economical with regard to the given resources of the computers. The first one focused on an oscillating movement and the second one was done with a rotational movement. Both were solved resorting to turbulent resolution model SST  $k-\omega$ .

**KEYWORDS:** fish mortality, hydraulic turbines, Computational Fluid Dynamics, OpenFoam.



## **RESUMO**

Ao longo do tempo, têm sido objeto de pesquisa estudos práticos e teóricos acerca da passagem de peixes através de turbinas hidroelétricas. As maiores causas de mortalidade de peixes em turbinas hidroelétricas são a variação de pressão, cavitação, tensão de cisalhamento, assim como colisões. A maioria dos modelos utilizados para calcular a mortalidade de peixes são baseados na probabilidade de as lesões acontecerem sob a dependência de parâmetros como o tipo de escoamento, comprimento do peixe ou o ângulo das pás da turbina. No entanto, estes modelos são apelidados de “black box models”, nos quais são negligenciados os processos físicos reais.

Perante estas situações revela-se importante o papel da dinâmica computacional de fluidos. É possível modelar e simular diferentes estruturas e desta forma também o escoamento que pode ocorrer. Portanto, é possível modelar o que acontece a um peixe durante a sua passagem por uma turbina, sendo possível observar os processos que ocorrem durante essa passagem.

Neste trabalho, foi modelada uma turbina de quatro pás fazendo recurso do software *OpenFOAM* – Open Field Operation and Manipulation. O trabalho está principalmente focado na simulação do movimento de uma turbina.

Foram feitas duas abordagens diferentes em relação à simulação do movimento, de forma a que seja possível compreender qual será a mais adequada e económica tendo em conta os recursos dos computadores. A primeira abordagem está focada num movimento de oscilação e a segunda num movimento de rotação. Ambas foram resolvidas fazendo recurso do modelo SST  $k-\omega$ .

**PALAVRAS-CHAVE:** mortalidade de peixes, turbina hidráulica, dinâmica computacional de fluidos, OpenFOAM



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# 1

## INTRODUCTION

With the improvement of electric and hydraulic technology, it's almost impossible for fish to do their natural migration through a river without having to cross human made barriers such as dams and barrages. The studies regarding this fact are in constant development, not only in the field but also in laboratory.

The fish are mechanically and hydraulically injured and because of this, the studies have special emphasis on tidal schemes in operation. Although the types of fish sufferer injuries are well documented and explained, their causes are not that clear. The specific hydraulic conditions that lead to these injuries and sometimes to mortality are yet not well known. So far, most of the known mortality models have been built on probability studies.

This is where softwares like *OpenFOAM* can have a major difference. The possibility to model the most diverse structures as well as different flow models is the reasons why this software is adequate to give correct answers, regarding the purpose of this work. *OpenFOAM* or Open Field Operation and Manipulation is a software that, as the name indicates, is an open source software meaning that, besides the normal use of the libraries, it is also possible to change the codes, adapting them to the better form of the problem in question.

The main purpose of this assignment is to test whether it is possible or not to build a numerical model of a running turbine resorting to this software.

This work is divided in five chapters. The first one is merely introductory. The second one makes a detailed explanation about fish mortality, the studies made in this area and the influence of the turbines in the injuries and the mortality.

The third chapter explains how computational fluid dynamics works in a way to better understand how all the boundaries were chosen to this work.

The fourth chapter describes all the procedures regarding the modelling of the turbine.

Finally, the fifth chapter exposes the conclusions about this model.



# 2

## **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK REGARDING FISH PASSAGE THROUGH RUNNING TURBINES**

### **2.1. FISH MORTALITY ASSOCIATED WITH RUNNING TURBINES**

There are many different types of fish species that have migration as an important procedure on their basic needs, such as to get food and to breathe. This migration can differ on a scale of time and distance, varying from daily to annual and from meters to kilometres.

During the migration process, fish usually need to go through some barriers. Some of these barriers are natural, like sandbars, landslides, waterfalls, and boulder cascades. Others are human made, such as dams and barrages, which usually are equipped with power schemes such as turbines. This barrier works, most of the times, as physical stressor that can have implication on fish mortality. If the studied species have economic relevance, this could be a serious problem and, therefore, the need for more efficient fish passage is a requirement.

The field and laboratory studies on fish mortality are still being reviewed because it seems that little is yet known about which hydraulic conditions within the turbine directly affect fish. Although, the mechanical conditions responsible for the rates of mortality are already known, and they are:

- The abrupt changes in pressure;
- Water turbulence;
- Shearing currents;
- Mechanical contact with blades.

On the other hand, the rates of mortality vary with fish size, turbine characteristics, such as head of water and runner diameter, and the operating conditions of the power scheme.

The studies made so far on this subject are always related with the turbine passage, but it would be stimulating if the relationship between turbine characteristics, size and species of the fish could be studied. It is in fact a complex interaction with many variables.

### **2.2. CHARACTERISTICS OF RUNNING TURBINES**

The main causes of fish mortality are now subject of further explanation.

The effect that pressure has on fish mortality is highly dependent on the turbine design and consequently on the head water. First, it is undoubtedly necessary to explain the operation in turbines and its consequences to the phenomena that causes injury and mortality on fish.

Hydraulic turbines can be separated in two main categories: impulse and reaction turbines. The difference between these two types is mainly given by the action of the water and consequently the mechanical energy that is produced, later converted to electrical energy.

Impulse turbines use the water movement and the associated kinetic energy of a high-velocity jet discharging at atmospheric pressure. (Turbak *et al* 1981).

## Impulse Turbine

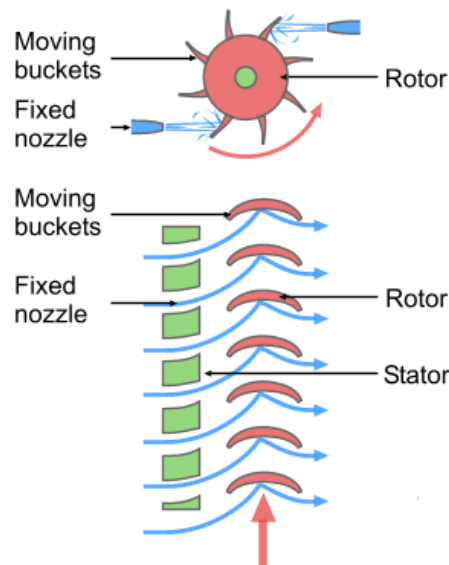


Fig. 1 – Operating system of an Impulse Turbine (Source: [1])

With this system, shown in figure 1, suction on the down side of the turbine does not occur because water flows through the bottom of the turbine after hitting the bucket. This type is usually used for high head and low flow power schemes. The PELTON turbine is one example of impulse turbines and the most used one.

Pelton turbines are one of the most important turbines when it comes to the conversion of hydraulic energy into electricity, especially in mountain areas. As Dhakan P.K. and Chalil, A. B. P. (2013) refers this is due to the fact that this type of turbines can be easily used in places where the altitude difference between the water source and the location of the turbine is considerable.

Pelton turbines can be used in large scale hydro installation for heads that can go from 20 meters to 150 meters. Usually these types of turbines are not chosen when dealing with lower water heads since the rotational speed becomes slower and the runner of the turbine required needs to be larger and it's difficult to manage.

In high water heads the flow rate tends to be lower going from  $0,005 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  in the smaller systems till  $1 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  on larger systems. In consequence of these values the obtained power results can vary in a scale from a few kW up to hundreds of MW's in those larger systems.

In hydraulic systems with Pelton turbines, the reservoir is connected to a penstock head that is posteriorly linked to a penstock where the water flows and is directed by a nozzle against the buckets around the runner in a form of a thin jet.

These turbines can be arranged in two forms: in a horizontal shaft or in a vertical shaft. The horizontal position allows the use of several runners leading to a higher specific speed and therefore a higher operational speed. The vertical position allows a multi jet construction leading to an improvement of the speed.

In reaction turbines, the flow system is restricted to a closed conduit and at any point it gets in contact with air. This system is strictly closed from the headwater to the tail water. When water approaches the runner it is provided with pressure energy and kinetic energy. The first is due to the density of the water above this till the headwater surface and the second is due to the velocity. PROPELLER (Bulb Turbine, Straflo, Kaplan) and FRANCIS are some of the examples of reaction turbines.

## Reaction Turbine

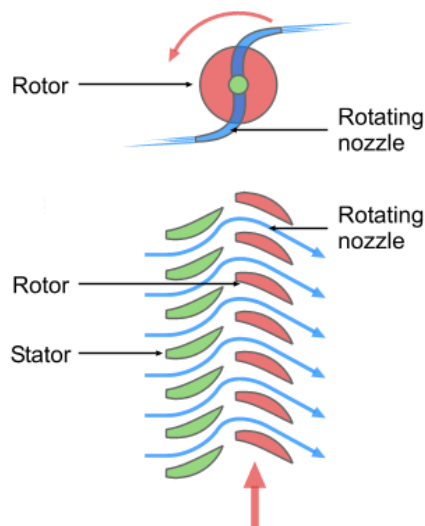


Fig. 2 – Operating system of a Reaction Turbine (Source [1])

As Turbak *et al* (1981) refers, fish mortality research has been almost entirely made with reaction turbines and for this reason those type of turbines will be object of a more extensive explanation. These turbines have a simple design that begins with an intake conduit that guides the water into the main casing where it gets in contact with the nozzles that are attached to the rotor. The acceleration caused by the water leaving the nozzles makes a reaction force on the pipes and consequently the rotor starts moving in the opposite direction of the water.

The main shaft in the rotor can have different positions according to the different type of turbine. The Straflo uses only horizontal flow but Francis and Kaplan can use both horizontal and vertical flow.

One of the most important and commonly used Propeller turbine is the Kaplan turbine. This turbine has a propeller with adjustable blades inside a tube. It is also known as an axial-flow turbine meaning that the flow direction doesn't change while crossing the rotor.

Theoretically, Kaplan turbines can work through an extensive spectrum of heads and flow rates, but, in practice, there are other types of more effective turbines for higher heads of water. Due to this, Kaplan turbines are usually chosen for lower water heads going from 1.5 to 20 meters with high flow rates from 3 m<sup>3</sup>/s to 30 m<sup>3</sup>/s. Hydroelectric power plants with Kaplan installations for these flows have output power values from 75 kW to 1MW.

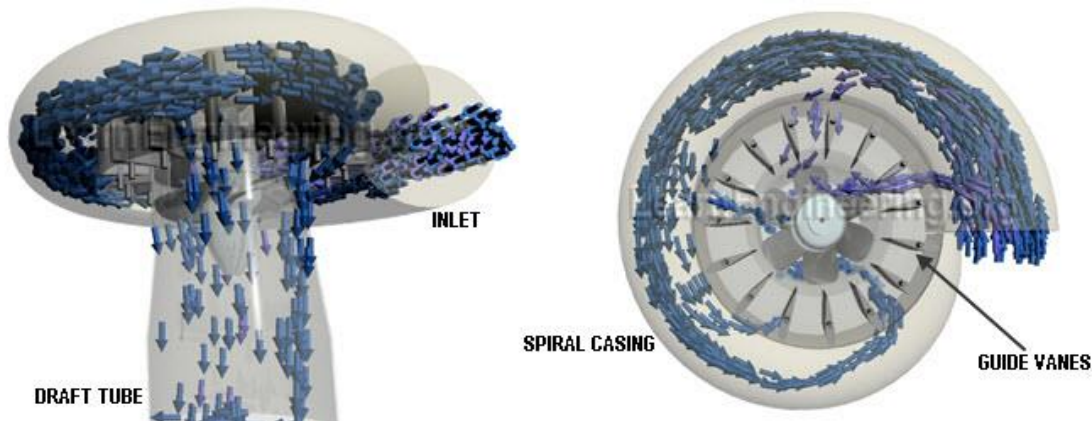


Fig. 3 – Basic layout of a Kaplan turbine (Source: [2])

These turbines have usually in their structure a nose cone, a rotor with adjustable blades and a vertical driveshaft. The inlet guide-vanes that lead the water to the turbine can regulate the flow rate in the turbine. This allows to fully stop the work of the turbine by closing completely the guide-vanes. It also allows, depending on the position of the guide-vanes, to control the flow and consequently guarantee that the oncoming flow can hit the rotor in the most efficient angle conducting to the highest efficiency.

The blades can also be adjustable according to the dimension of the flow: a flat outline to very low flows and a heavily-pitched outline for high flows. Allowing the adjustment of the inlet guide-vanes leads to a big opening of the flow operating range and by adjusting the rotor blades it's possible to optimize the turbine efficiency.

Francis turbines are another type of really common reaction turbines and one of the most preferred since they are also the most reliable turbines used in hydroelectric power stations.

Turbak *et al* (1981) states that the contribution of these turbines to the global hydropower capacity is around 60 per cent, basically because the efficiency is higher under a huge range of different operating conditions.

Installations with Francis turbines can operate in heads from 30 to 300 meters with flows from 10 to 700 m<sup>3</sup>/s and the number of blades in the turbine can vary from 14 in lower heads to 20 for higher heads.

In a simplified way, the Francis turbine is composed of a runner with complex shaped blades. The flow enters the turbine radially and leaves it axially as it is possible to notice on Fig. 4. Nevertheless there is a particularity about the blades of the Francis turbine: the cross-section is shaped like a thin airfoil. This means that when the inlet flow crosses the blades there is a low pressure in one side and a high pressure on the other side, leading to a lift force.



It is possible to notice, as well, that the blade has a bucket kind of shape directed to the outlet. After the water flow hits the blades, it produces an impulse force to be able to leave the runner. The runner rotates due to both impulse and lift force.

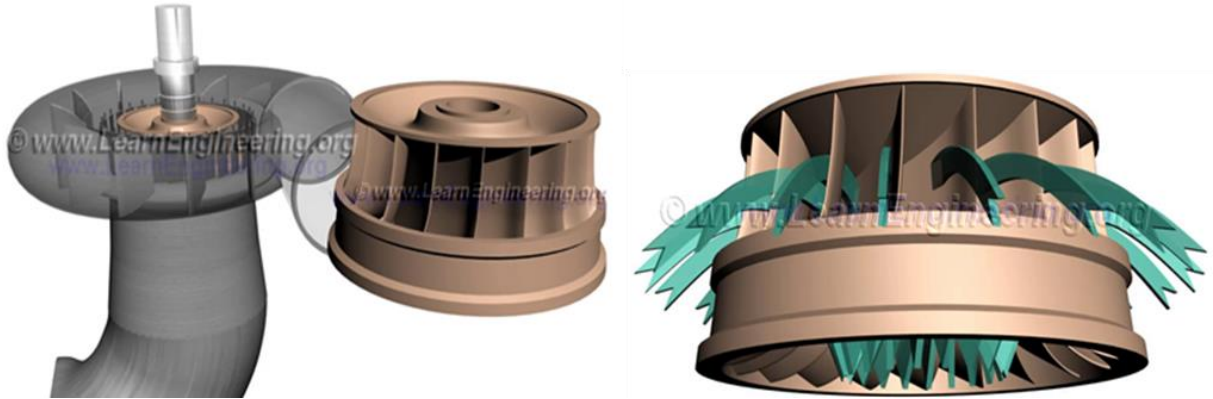


Fig. 4 – Basic layout of a Francis Turbine (Source: [3])

This may sound like a contradiction since Francis is a reaction turbine. The truth is that it's not a pure reaction turbine and part of the force to move the runner is obtained by an impulse action. The runner is connected to a shaft to posterior gain of electric energy production.

As Turbak *et al* (1981) refers, fish mortality research has been almost entirely made with reaction turbines. These turbines have a simple design that begins with an intake conduit that guides the water into the main casing where it gets in contact with the nozzles that are attached to the rotor. The acceleration caused by the water leaving the nozzles makes a reaction force on the pipes and consequently the rotor starts moving in the opposite direction of the water.

### 2.3. SOURCES OF FISH MORTALITY

During the past 60 years, there have been made a lot of studies to determine injury and survival rates for fish passage through hydroelectric turbines and some causes have been identified as the major causative to fish mortality. Those are the pressure effect and cavitation, the flow shear and the turbulence, mechanics contact with blades, grinding and abrasion in gaps. (Jacobson, *et al.* 2012)

These and the studies regarding this sources will be subject to a thorough explanation in this work, but the Fig. 5 is a good first explanation to better understand the dynamics between the fish mortality and the geometry of the turbine.

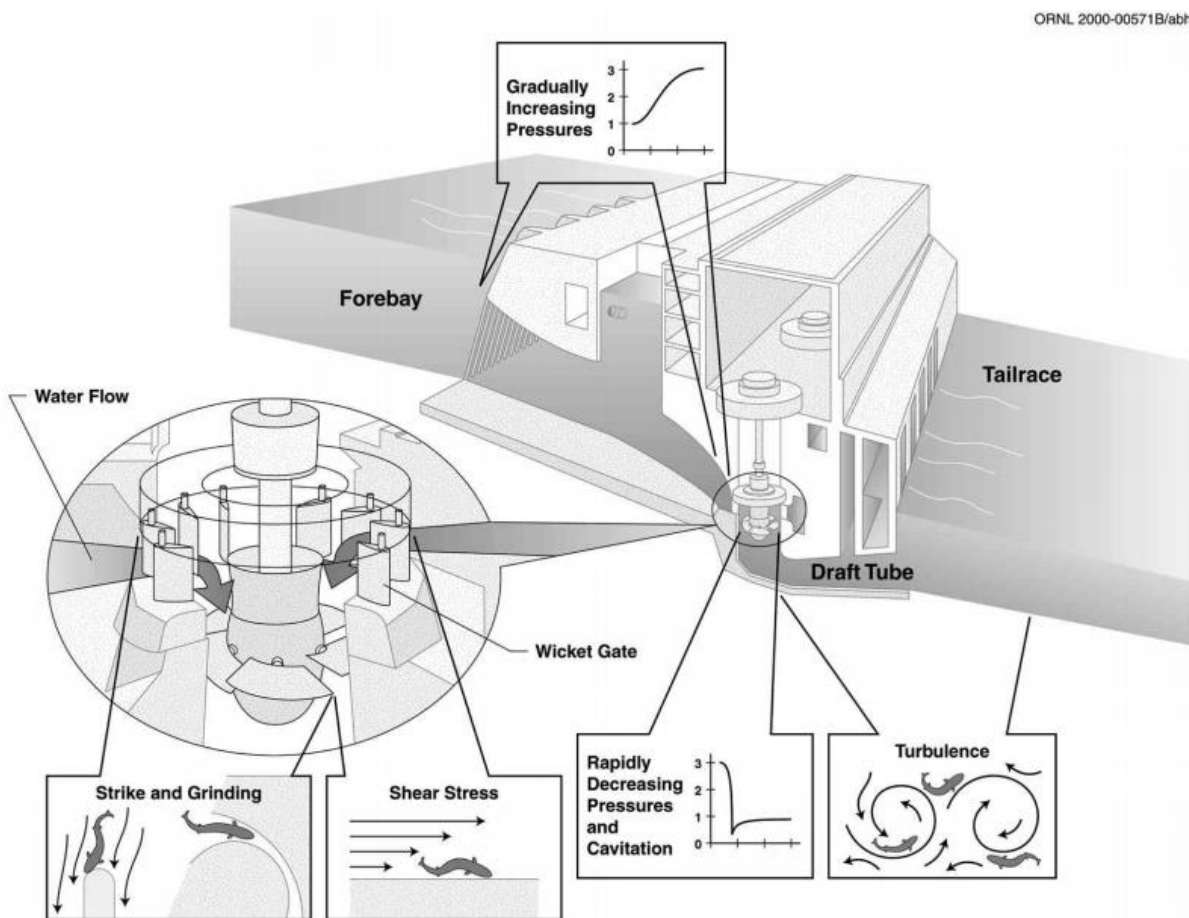


Fig. 5 – Sources of injury to fish passing through hydropower turbines. (Source: Čada et al. 1997)

### 2.3.1. PRESSURE EFFECT

The variation of pressure during the water flow in the turbine is not, for itself, a main problem to fish. Due to the fact that they possess a duct between the oesophagus and the swim bladder, fish are able to endure pressure change. The pressure reaches a peak inside the intake chasing and then it has a major drop to sub-atmospheric values as it passes through the runner blades. Although the value may change for different types of turbines, this pressure drop always happens as it is demonstrated in Fig. 6. The levels are reinstated to a slightly higher pressure in the draft tube and then they are levelled again to atmospheric pressure as the discharge begins, as it is possible to see next:

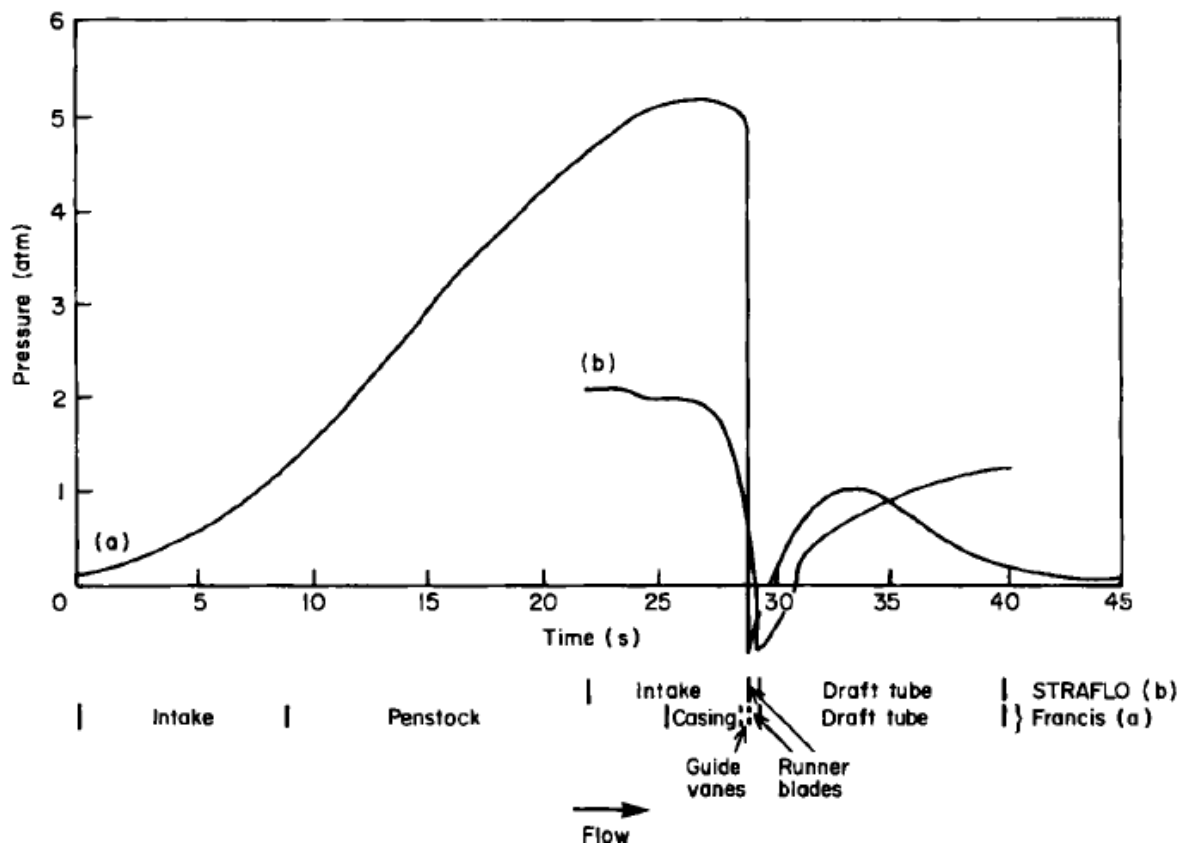


Fig. 6 – Pressure changes in a) Francis turbines and b) STRAFLO turbines (source: Monten, 1985; Dadswell et al, 1986 and Davies, 1988)

Davies (1988) states that the high pressure values vary between 5 to 10 atm and all these variations occur in fractions of a second. Watson (1995) also measured the pressures associated with conventional hydro turbines where the values go from a high of 460 kPa to a low of 2kPa.

Cavitation is a phenomenon caused by the creation of gas bubbles in water, after a pressure drop within the turbine that collapses or implodes causing injuries to the fish. It is not that common since cavitation is not only harmful to fish but also to turbines. When the design of the power scheme is being made, this factor is always taken in account. Unfortunately, when it happens, it leads to expansion of gas spaces in the fish that consequently can bring rupture to delicate tissues.

### 2.3.2. WATER TURBULENCE AND SHEARING CURRENTS

The turbulence that the water in a specific turbine can run is dependent on the Reynolds number defined for it. The biggest problem concerning to fish is that this turbulence alters the water speed and direction making the passage of fish in the turbine a difficult process. The main injuries registered are contusions, abrasions, lacerations and sliced bodies leading in some cases to decapitation. Davies, (1988).

Shearing currents are defined by two masses of water flow in different velocities and encountering each other. This phenomenon is usual on the edges of the runner blades. Shear is easy to be identified since it causes a specific damage to fish: the inversion of the gill arches and consequent decapitation. Less common is the torn of the opercula and the damage of the gills. This can be easily understood, because fish encounter themselves in a situation where different parts of their bodies are located in masses of water with different velocities and directions.

### 2.3.3. MECHANICAL CONTACT WITH BLADES

The symptoms from this cause are most likely to be identified than the others. The injuries observed by direct contact with the machinery are contusions, abrasions, lacerations or even complete maceration. This is most likely to happen when the turbine is not working at its full capacity making the path of the fish till the end more difficult. Many authors, such as Davies (1988) and Turbak *et al* (1981), refer that the design of turbine as well as the fish length has a direct influence in the mortality rate.

## 2.4. REVIEW ON STUDIES REGARDING THE SOURCES OF FISH MORTALITY

The studies made so far on fish mortality can be divided in two main categories: field observations and laboratory simulation. In field, observation methods like netting, tagging, balsa boxes and floating tags have been used to evaluate fish behaviour.

In laboratory, hydraulic conditions have been recreated in order to better expose what happens during the passage of water through the turbine. In laboratory, it is more likely to control and observe how pressure, runner diameter, head of water and other hydraulic conditions can affect fish physiologically and anatomically.

There are a lot of the studies concentrated in the United States conducted with anadromous salmonids. In the 1990's, the studies were an important effort to protect the fish and to try to alert for the need of downstream fish passage and protection facilities. (Jacobson, *et al.* 2012)

It is also important to mention that, in the 90's, the Department of Energy developed the Advanced Hydro Turbine Systems Program (AHTS) which main goal should be the improvement of turbine technologies that could reduce the damage to entrained fish. Alongside with this, there were developed two "fish-friendly" turbine designs so called as Alden turbine and Minimum Gap Runner Kaplan. Nowadays, more recent studies have included also the blade strike experiments that are able to provide data and guidelines for decreasing fish mortality by reshaping the leading edge of turbine blades. (Jacobson, *et al.* 2012)

### 2.4.1. REVIEW OF PRESSURE STUDIES.

Laboratory evaluations were conducted by Harvey (1963), Foye and Scott (1965) after exposing fish, more specifically Salmonids (physostomous) to gradual and rapid increase in pressure to 2,064 kPa followed by decompression to atmospheric pressures. They concluded that this concrete action didn't show any significant mortality.

On the other hand, Harvey (1963) exposed the same specific species to pressures in the order of 84,6 kPa and the results regarding the mortality were significantly higher. Feathers and Knable (1983) observed that using the pre-exposure to acclimation pressure as a variable made it possible to conclude that fish mortality is related to the magnitude of depressurization.

Čada *et al.* (1997) also concludes that the highest mortalities were observed when the rate of pressure decreases and the difference between the fish's acclimation and the exposure pressure is higher.

But there are a few more investigations regarding the direct effects of pressure stress on fish while the turbines are in an operating mode. One of the most significant investigations was performed by the Pacific Northwest National Laboratory under the program Advanced Hydropower Turbine System and it consisted in a laboratory study responsible to inflict rapid pressure changes in a closed system. The response of the fish and its acclimation at different depths and gas saturation levels were taken in account. Abernethy *et al.* (2001) With this work it was possible to obtain the following diagram represented on Fig. 7.

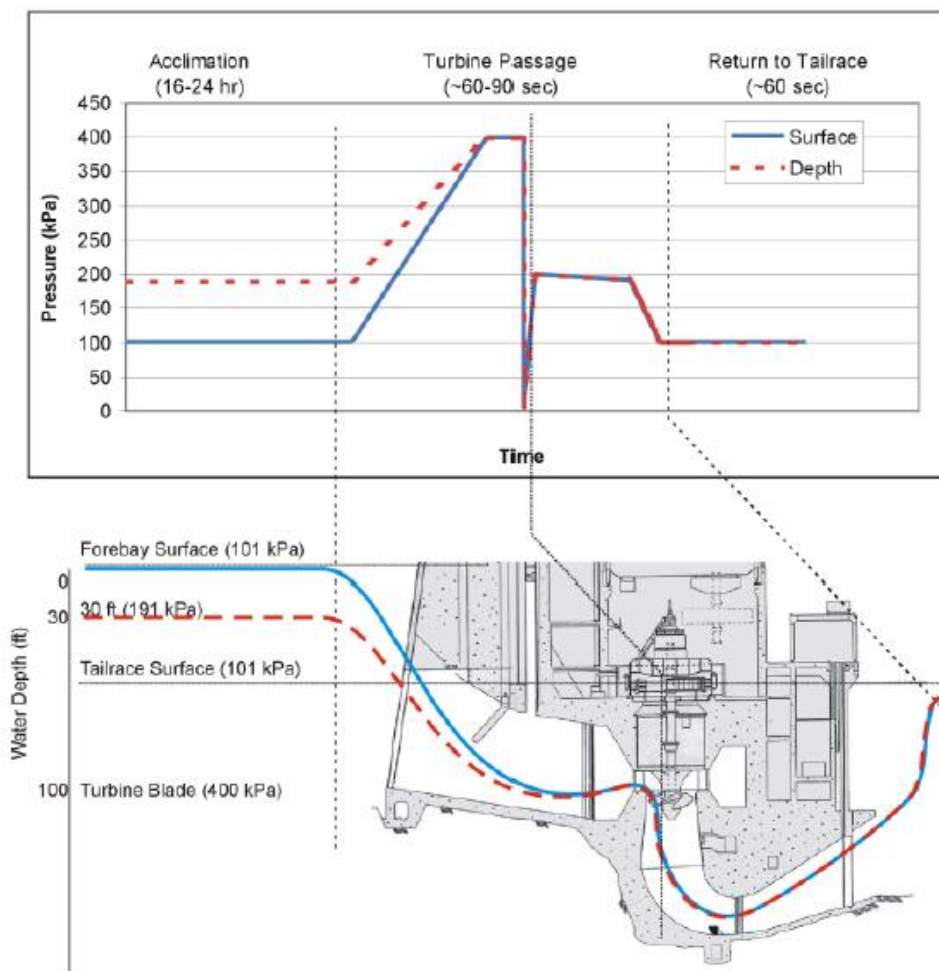


Fig. 7 – Pressure exposure simulation of a turbine passage for surface and depth acclimated fish (Source: Abernethy *et al.* 2001)

Resorting to CFD modeling allows the investigators to better control the chosen pressure regimes while having the possibility to change the operating conditions. It is also possible to achieve a model of pressure-induced mortality by the collection of empirical data.

One of the first successful works in this field was accomplished by Tumpenny *et al.* (2000) by resorting to CFD simulation to reach a method where it was possible to predict the injury rates resultant from damaging pressures for low-head Francis and Kaplan turbines. It was also concluded that the turbine runner and the draft tube of the turbines are the main risk areas of injuries related to pressure.

One of the most recent study made by Brown *et al.* (2007) supported all these conclusions by demonstrating that acclimation pressure is a significant predictor for the risk of injury or death but only when fish are exposed to lower pressures in the order of 8 to 19kPa.

#### 2.4.2. REVIEW OF WATER TURBULENCE AND SHEARING CURRENTS STUDIES.

Turbulence is defined as the fluctuations in velocity magnitude and direction associated with the movement of the water and, precisely by this, studies in this field are more difficult to evaluate than all the others. Since in turbulent flows there are also shear forces, this creates an obstacle to clearly understand the different effects these two elements have on fish.

The physical effects of shear and turbulence on a fish organism are most likely the same. However, it is likely that turbulence does not have a direct effect on fish mortality but can contribute with disorientation, especially when fish are leaving the draft tube. (Čada *et al.* 1997)

Killgore *et al.* (1987) studied the survival of fish (more precisely paddlefish yolk-sac larvae) when exposed to different frequencies and intensities of turbulence created by barges. He got to the conclusion that low turbulence levels, in the order of 22-23 cm/s, would lead to low rates of mortality around 13%. On the other hand, high turbulence levels, such as 57-59 cm/s, could engage in mortality levels around or higher than 80%.

The main studies regarding shear currents have two main difficulties: correlating injury and mortality with shear levels experienced by individual fish that are collected after turbine passage and distinguish these injuries from similar injuries that can have other causes, like blade strikes for example. (Jacobson, 2012)

It is natural to assume that velocities and magnitudes of shear stress along the path that fish have to make through turbines is much higher than in their natural environments. Velocity inside a turbine was measured varying from zero near solid boundaries to approximately 36,58 m/s (120 ft/s) in areas away from the boundaries. Resorting to these values, the estimations of shear stress values for bulb turbine draft tubes would go from 500 to 5,400 N/m<sup>2</sup> with stress levels under 1,000 N/m<sup>2</sup> in over 90% of the passage zone. (McEwen and Scobie 1992).

Based on the previous study, Turnpenny *et al.* (1992) began a laboratory experience where fish were exposed to a high-velocity water jet in a static water tank. After exposing the fish to the shear stress that was created it was possible to get to the conclusion that values of shear stress below 774 N/m<sup>2</sup> are not harmful neither can lead to death. Other important result of this study was that mortality was proportional to jet velocity as well as the fish orientation at the initial exposure.

To have better conclusions regarding this subject, computer modelling techniques were applied in order to better characterize the variation of shear forces throughout the entire turbine, especially on the surroundings of the runner blades and other structural components. Turnpenny *et al.* (2000) applied Computational Fluid Dynamic (CFD) modelling to low-head Francis and Kaplan turbines in order to

better identify the possibility of injury due to shear stress. The conclusion was that the shear stress levels were of minor importance since they had low probabilities of occurring. Investigators predicted that less than 2% of the fish passing low-head turbines would suffer fatal injuries due to shear stress.

#### 2.4.3. REVIEW OF MECHANICAL STUDIES.

The possibility to engage in direct observation within turbines is in fact difficult and by that fact it was calculated the strike probability and defined that almost every strike, if not all, could cause mortality. This early models were developed to estimate the blade strike probability taking into account factors like flow velocity, blade and guide vane angles, blade rotational speed and the length of the fish. (Von Raben 1957 and Solomon 1988).

Turnpenny *et al.* (1992) conducted an experience doing the simulation of the strike speeds near the hub and the blade tip. These experiments had taken into account the different blade profiles and how they could lead to different results if conjugated with different fish sizes, orientation and position relative to the blade. The conclusions were that regardless the outline of the blades, the results would vary only with the change of the blades velocity. For high velocities severe damages were registered, like bruising, internal bleeding and broken spines and on the other hand, with low velocities, little damage and no mortality were observed. In the same study, it was possible to build a pattern regarding the orientation of a fish relative to the blade. The conclusion was that for fish weighing under 20g the harm was minor, since they were swept aside by the blade. On the other hand, for fish weighing up to 200g the chance of being hit when their centre of gravity was coincident with the blade's path was of 75%. (Turnpenny *et al.* 1992)

As a follow up for these studies, Turnpenny *et al.* (1992) established equations for low-head, axial-flow tidal turbines taking into account blade strike probabilities, fish length, fish location, fish orientation, fish swimming speed, flow velocity, open space between blades, blade leading edge thickness and blade speed.

Later, Turnpenny *et al.* (2000) adapted the statistical methods to predict injury rates for smaller turbines. Results correlated the fish size, turbine type, runner diameter and rotational rate (rpm), number of blades and operating load to the strike injury. Another conclusion was that by altering the design of the turbine, like the number and length of blades or the area per blade channel, the probability of the strike could be diminished.

A pilot-scale laboratory study with multiple fish species and sizes and with two operating heads – 12,19 m (40ft) and 24,38 m (80ft) - different operating efficiencies and without wicket gates was conducted in order to evaluate the relation between the operating conditions and its respective fish mortality. One of the main conclusions was that the depth, the turbine efficiency and the presence or not of wicket gates had no statistic influence on fish mortality or injury rates. (Hecker *et al.* 2002; Amaral *et al.* 2003; Cook *et al.* 2003).

As it is predictable, independently of the turbine design, fish mortality increases with fish size augmentation. To support this conclusion, pilot-scale test data and a strike probability model of a standard turbine blade were used to estimate the strike probability in a full-scale prototype unit for the heads already evaluated – 12,19m and 24,38m. It was conclude that there are high survival rates, higher than 96% for fish, with a length equal or less than 200mm for both operating heads.





# 3

## Computational Fluid Dynamics – CFD

### 3.1. INTRODUCTION TO COMPUTATIONAL FLUID DYNAMICS

Computational Fluid Dynamics is the field in fluid mechanics that studies the resolution and analysis of the flow using algorithms and numerical methods.

Fluids numerical modelling started, almost exclusively, with aeronautical study, but nowadays it is used in several areas of engineering and physics. It is employed in areas such as aircraft, turbo machinery, car and ship design and it can also be applied in areas such as meteorology, oceanography, astrophysics, oil recovery and also architecture. In its beginnings, it was a combination of physics, numerical mathematics and some computer science simulating fluid flows. With the advance in computer technology, it also occurred an advance in computational fluid dynamics. From simulating transonic flows based on the solution of non-linear potential equations, the CFD applications evolved to the first two-dimensional solutions and afterwards to three dimensional solutions. (Blazek. 2001)

With the promptly increasing computers capacity and speed, it was possible to start developing some more robust simulations with inviscid flows passing complete aircrafts configurations or inside turbo machines. With this development, it came the need to start more demanding simulation with viscous flows governed by the Navier Stokes equations. As a result, turbulence models such as Reynolds-average Simulation (RAS) and the Large Eddy Simulation (LES) appeared. (Blazek. 2001)

With the consequent advance of the complexity in flow simulations, the grid generation also had to follow this development. The progress started first with simple structured meshes constructed either by algebraic methods or by using partial differential equations. But with increasing geometrical complexity of the configurations, the grids had to be broken into a number of topologically simpler blocks and then the multiblocks approach appeared. Nevertheless, the generation of a complex structure using multiblocks grid would still take a long time in the order of weeks or even months. Due to this fact, the research on the field of unstructured grid generators and consequently its solver took a big growth by promising to reduce the setup times. (Blazek. 2001)

With the use of the Navier-Stokes equations, the requirements for the meshes were more demanding. Prisms and hexahedra grids in viscous flows began to be used, improving the solution accuracy and saving the number of elements, faces and edges.

The biggest problem on using fluids numerical modelling software is the greatest complexity and unpredictability on knowing how a fluid will behave since it has a non-linear behaviour. Despite this problem, with the appearance of more powerful computers, the properties of the fluids are more easily understood. Another problem is that the obtained solutions are only as correct as the physical models they are based on.

The simulation with physical models involving fluids is very expensive. A physical model, depending on its complexity, needs a large set of material to better represent the prototype but it also needs measurement material and specialized staff. In spite of all these disadvantages, Bakker (2002) refers some important advantages, such as the cost reduction, since the computers became more advanced and faster in order to obtain results. One of the biggest advantages is the ability to simulate real conditions, such as flow and heat transfers and also to be able to control the physical process, isolating, if necessary, one specific phenomena.

With the advance of technology, it is already possible to run some of these experiments on personal computers. Also with the growing of CFD simulations, there is already in the market some software that can be used without any cost to the user, such as *OpenFOAM*.

Despite all the advantages Versteeg and Malalasekera (1995) refer that the numerical errors and the boundary conditions are two of the biggest problems when programming in CFD. Factors like the ambient temperature or the existence of air bubbles are not always included on the modelling process and that leads to calculation errors.

Numerical errors are the most frequent and they usually occur because of the algorithms used in CFD software which use really complex mathematical equations. Such as the experiments and simulations in physical models, the CFD simulations need a critical review of the results in order to be validated.

### 3.2. SPECIAL FEATURES OF THE CFD TOOLS

The base knowledge behind numerical modelling of fluids is that the numerical algorithms are able to simulate the fluid behaviour. Versteeg and Malalasekera (1995) refer three main elements: a pre-processor, a solver and a post-processor.

#### 3.2.1 PRE-PROCESSOR

This stage is where all the physical properties and information about the flow are defined. The data that is necessary is:

- definition of the region in study;
- definition of the geometry of the study case through meshes;
- definition of both physical and chemical properties of the model in study;
- definition of the fluid properties;
- definition of boundary conditions.

The definition of the mesh in a CFD problem is the first step to get the answer for a flow problem. The velocity, pressure and temperature, among other characteristics, are defined at the various nodes inside every cell of the mesh. As it is easy to understand, the precision of the result is largely dependent on the number of cells of the mesh. The larger the number of cells, the bigger is the accuracy of the solution. Efficient meshes should not be uniform: thinner in areas where big variations of characteristics happen and larger where this doesn't happen. The evolution on CFD is to try to make the programs with the ability to create these different meshes by themselves but for now it is still up to the user to make the better judgement about the correct mesh to use.

### 3.2.2. SOLVER

It's possible to obtain solutions by three different types of resolution: finite difference, finite element and spectral methods. As Versteeg and Malalasekera (1995) refer, the three are governed by the same assumptions: the ability to approximate the unknown flow variables with simple functions, to transform a continuous distribution in discrete units and then to approximate these into the governing flow equations and their respective mathematical manipulations.

The finite difference method has the approximation to the Navier-Stokes equations in their simplified form and it's of easy implementation. On the other side, it generates problems along the curved boundaries, such as the difficulty in achieving stability and reaching a convergence in the analysis. The mesh adaptation is also difficult.

The finite volume method is an approximation of the Navier-Stokes equations as a system of conservation equations being the biggest advantage the fact that the special discretisation is carried out directly in the physical space. The disadvantages are that, like the previous one, it has difficult stability and convergence analysis and it's difficult to adapt to unstructured meshes.

The spectral method evaluates the spatial derivatives resorting to Fourier series or one of their generalizations. It is possible to obtain the biggest advantage from spectral methods if the functions used are periodic and the grid points uniformly spaced. Any change in geometry or boundary conditions requires a considerable change in the method, making these methods relatively inflexible.

As it's possible to conclude, the biggest difference between these three streams is the way the flow variables are approximated and consequently the discretisation process. These methods will be further explored in chapter 3.7. (Ferziger, J.H. 2002)

### 3.2.3. POST-PROCESSOR

A big development has been done in the post-processing field. Almost all of CFD software is equipped with different visualization tools that can be divided into two forms: graphically or alphanumerically. In the graphical tools, there are vector plots, geometry and grid display contours, iso-surfaces, flowlines and animations. In the alphanumeric tools, there are some such as integral values, drag, lift and torque calculations, averages and standard deviations. These tools can facilitate the perception that the user has about work in progress.

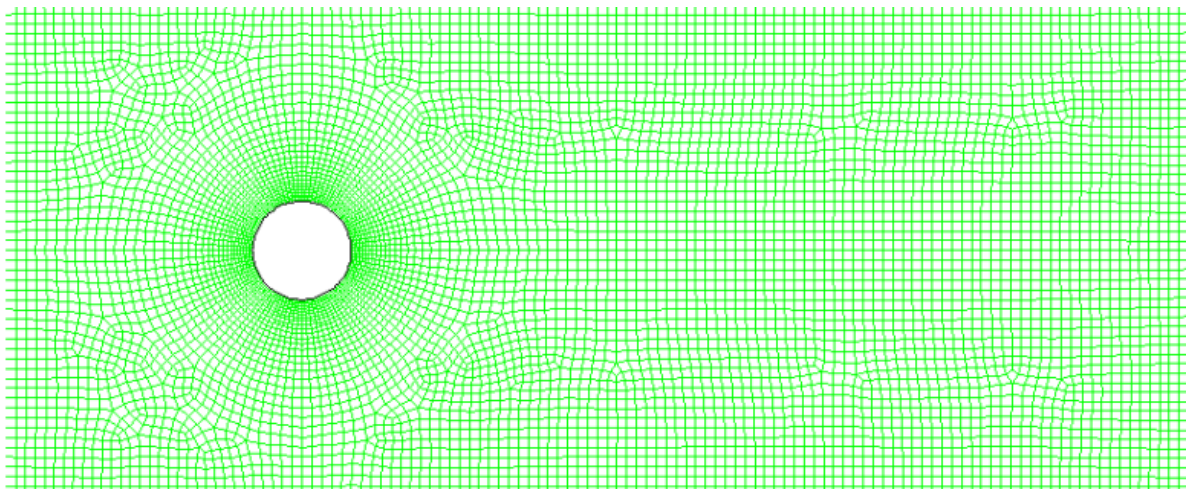


Fig. 8 – Flow around a cylinder: grid. (Source: Baker, 2002)

For instance, for the mesh displayed in Fig. 8, representing the flow around a circular cylinder, it is possible to display for each one of the time-steps the vector plots and the surface variations regarding the velocity magnitude as shown in Fig. 9. The same is valid for the pressure distribution, which is shown in Fig. 10.

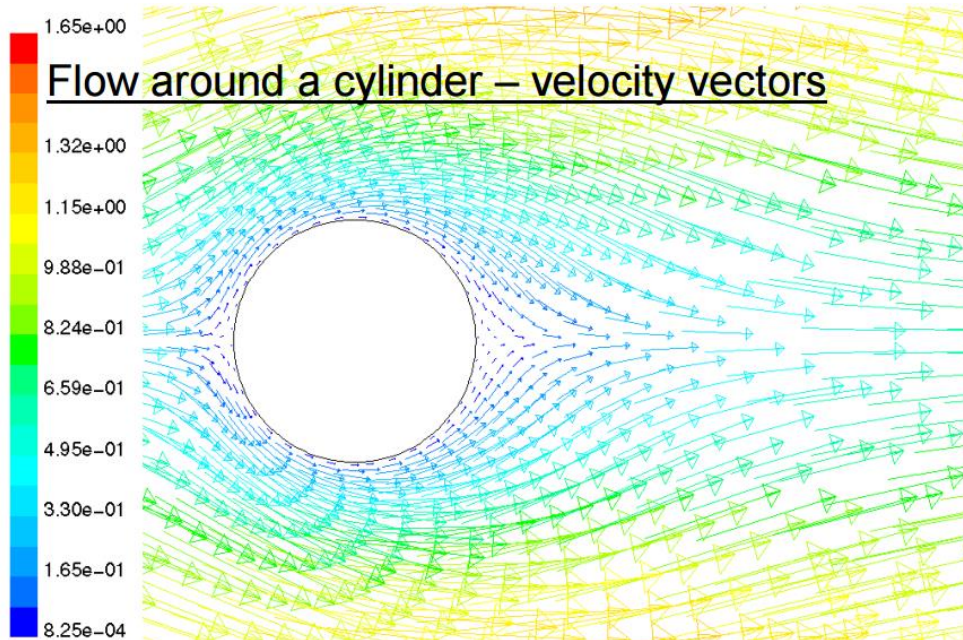


Fig. 9 – Velocity vectors regarding the flow around a cylinder. (Source: Baker, 2002)

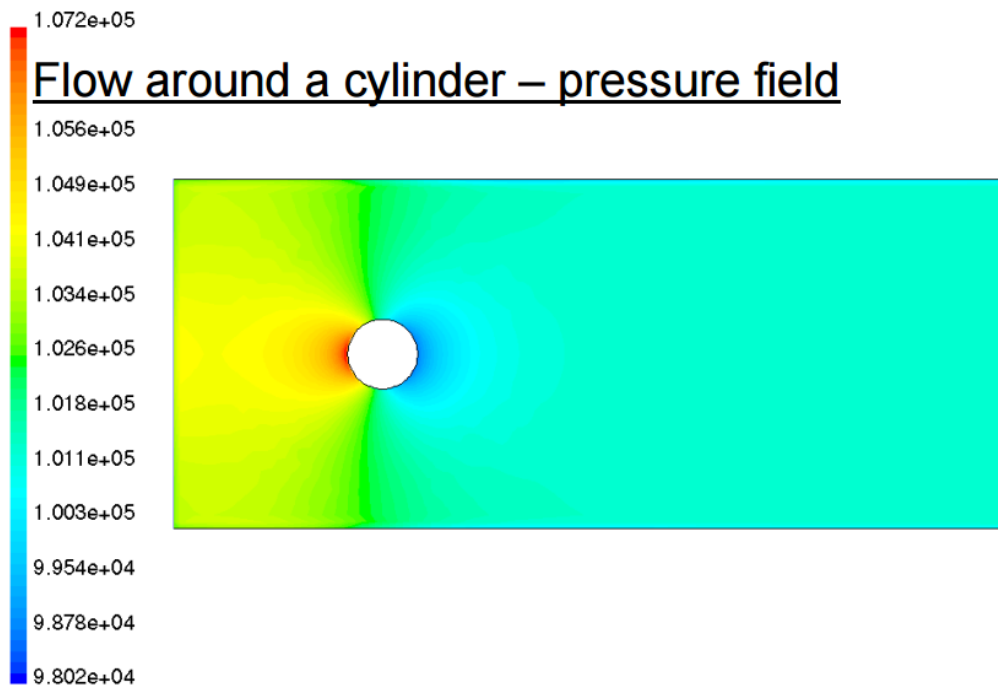


Fig. 10 – Iso-surface of pressure regarding flow around a cylinder (Source: Baker, 2002)

As it's possible to acknowledge, the post-processor is as important as the rest of the procedure allowing the user to rightly obtain conclusions.

### 3.3. MESHES

Analytical solutions are not usually a possible answer for the differential equations used to solve fluid flow and heat transfer problems due to the complexity and non-linearity of the governing equations. In order to better analyse the fluid flows, the domains are divided into smaller subdomains. These subdomains are characterized by geometric shapes like hexahedra and tetrahedral in 3 dimensions and quadrilaterals and triangles in 2 dimensions.

The biggest help on doing this type of division is that the equations are now solved inside each one of these smaller domains. The methods used to solve this equation were previously mentioned in the chapter 3.2.2 - Solver. These subdomains or cells must have a logical continuity so the solution obtained across the different points can make sense when put all together. All these elements are called a mesh or a grid.

Meshes can be rearranged in different forms and they can be structured or unstructured. Structured meshes (see Fig. 11) follow a  $i,j,k$  convention as opposite to unstructured meshes that don't have any convention (see Fig. 12). It is also possible to have multiblocks that consist in a group of meshes each of which can be structured or unstructured.

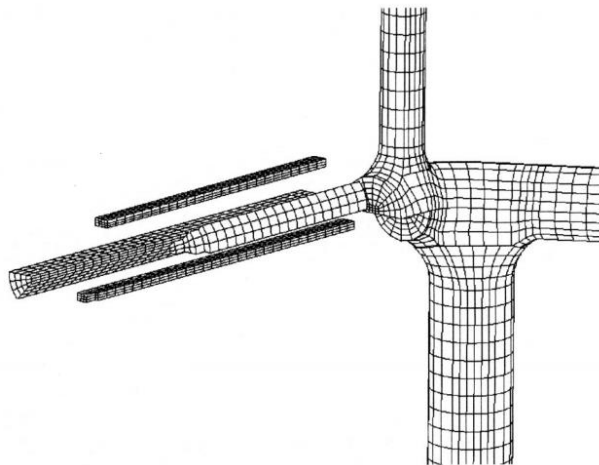


Fig. 11 – Structured mesh (Source: Yoganathan et al. 2004)

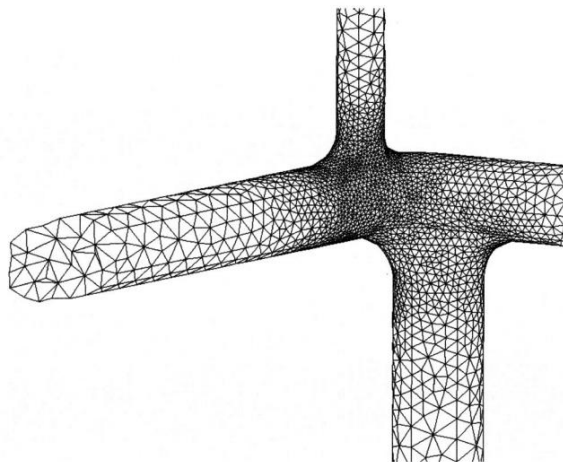


Fig. 12 – Unstructured mesh (Source: Yoganathan et al. 2004)

As it's possible to notice, the biggest difference on the two types of meshes is that the first one has the topology of a square grid of parallelepipeds, but the same does not happen on the second. These two types of meshes can be unpredictably difficult to generate, especially because a mesh that can be used to evaluate fluid flows, for instance, needs to satisfy some limits that are hard to achieve. A mesh must be represented as accurate as possible the object in study, but always with the restriction on size and shape of the elements of the mesh.

Modelling objects with complex shapes, as is the case of a turbine, obligates many times the use of curved surfaces. And with these surfaces two types of boundaries appear: exterior and interior boundaries.

As Shewchuk (1997) refers, exterior boundaries separate meshed and unmeshed portions of space, and are found on the outer surface and in the internal holes of a mesh. On a different point of view, internal boundaries appear within meshed portions of space, and enforce the constraint that elements may not pierce them. These boundaries are typically used to separate regions that have different physical properties. The size of the elements is an important control that should be also done while generating the mesh. This means that the variation of size of the elements should be done in a short distance. And why should this happen? The size of the elements has an influence on the finite element simulation. The smaller the elements are and more densely packed, the biggest is the accuracy of the results, but at the same time this is going to increase the required time for the computer to solve the problem. Of course that the physical phenomena in study has a highly influence on the size chosen for the elements. For instance, in a fluid flow simulation, in areas where turbulence occurs, the elements should be smaller than in areas of steadiness.

It is possible to have the same size of elements through all the domain in study but that can lead to excessive computational demands. One way to solve this problem is to use a mesh generator that can make the gradation from small to large sizes of the elements inside the mesh. Mesh generator algorithms have the main goal to generate a mesh with as few elements as possible offering the option to refine some parts of the mesh where the elements are not as small as required.

In conclusion, the last aim of generating a mesh is to try to make the elements as "round" as possible in shape because angles (as big or small they can be) degrade the quality of the solution.

The quality of each element is still a relative subject, highly dependent on the model in study, the type of numerical method used and the polynomial degree of the piecewise functions used to interpolate the solution over the mesh.

### 3.4. MAIN PRINCIPLES ABOUT FLUID DYNAMICS

Before proceeding to the study of fluid dynamics, it is important to have some ground notions of how fluids work. Fluids are substances whose molecular structure is not affected by external shear forces. Common dynamic forces like pressure differences, gravity, shear, rotation and surface tension are the responsible for the fluid flow.

The software that runs numerical modelling of fluids has its base ground on some fundamental conservation laws of fluids. Those are:

- Mass conservation (Continuity law)
- The rate of change of momentum equals the sum of the forces on a fluid particle (Second law of Newton)
- Conservation of energy in a particle (First law of thermodynamics)

The numerical formulation of these principles can be written in a differential way. When the study is done in an integral way, it's necessary to consider the change of mass, movement or energy inside the volume where the inflow and the outflow of the fluid occur. In a differential study, it is used the Stokes equation where the conservative laws are applied to an infinitesimal volume. It's in this last assumption that the majority of the fluid dynamics modelling is based on.

The velocity of a flow is also an important characteristic and allied with the inertia of the fluid it defines if the flow is laminar or turbulent. As the velocity increases and it leads to instability and to a more random type of flow the flows goes from laminar to turbulent.

#### 3.4.1. MASS CONSERVATION – LAW OF CONTINUITY

The continuity law states that, in the mass conservation, the rate of increase of mass in the fluid element needs to be equal to the net rate of flow of mass into the same fluid element.

This can be described by the following equation:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{cv} \rho dV + \int_{cs} \rho \vec{u} \times \vec{n} dA = 0 \quad (3.1)$$

Where  $\rho$  defines the fluid density,  $\vec{u}$ , the absolute velocity of the fluid and  $\vec{n}$ , the unit vector normal to the element with the area  $dA$ . The indices  $cv$  and  $cs$  have the meaning of control volume and control surface, referring to the fluid element.

Defining a fluid element with sides such as  $\delta_x$ ,  $\delta_y$  and  $\delta_z$ , as its shown in the Fig. 13, can make the understanding of mass conservation easier.

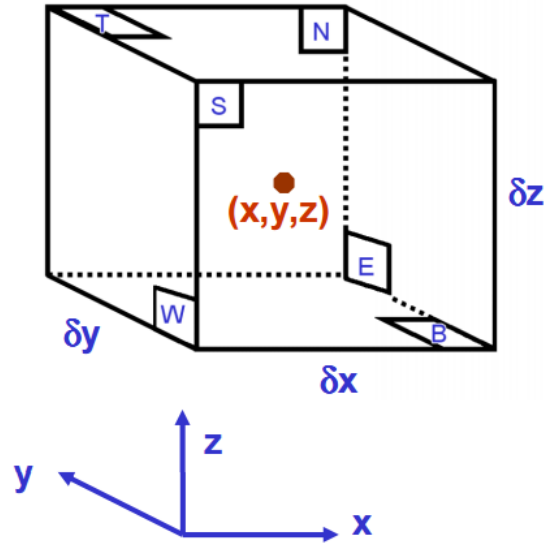


Fig. 13 – Fluid element for conservation laws (Source: Baker, 2002)

Taking into account the mass flow across the face of the element in consideration, it's possible to define the flow as it is shown in Fig. 14.

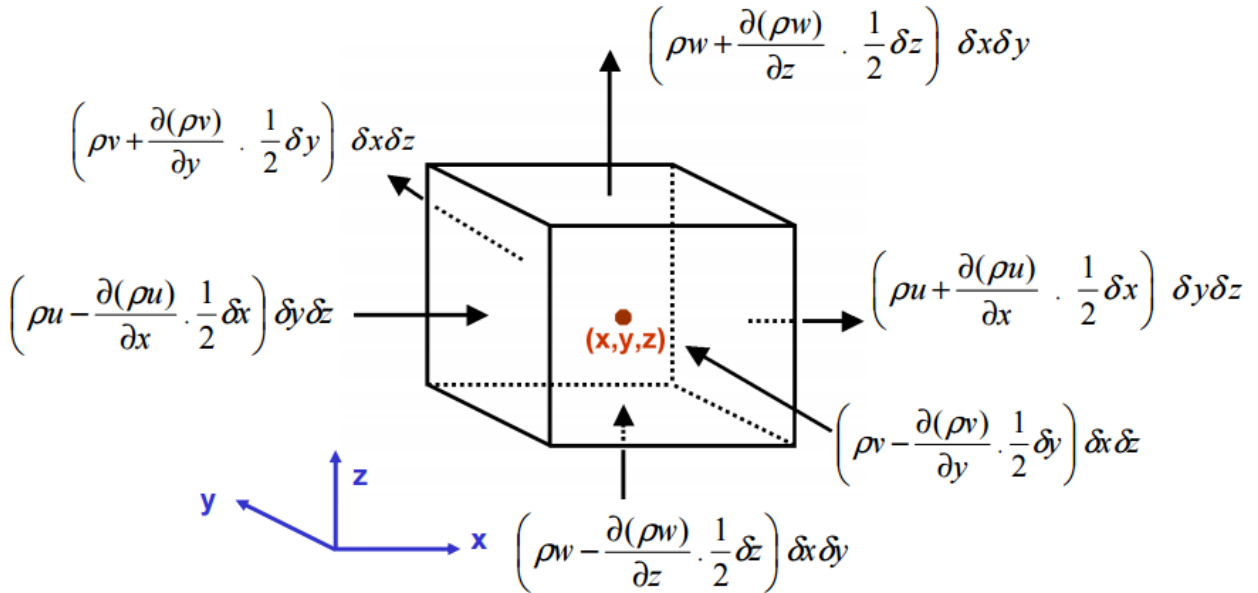


Fig. 14 – Mass flows in and out of fluid element. (Source: Baker, 2002)

Applying the Gauss Theorem to the equation 3.1, it's possible to obtain:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div}(\rho \vec{u}) = 0 \quad (3.2)$$

This equation defines now the unsteady and three-dimensional mass conservation at a certain point for a compressible fluid. For an incompressible fluid (for example, a liquid one) the second part of the equation which



describes the net flow of mass across the boundaries of the element and in a more specific way called convective term is null. This is explained by the fact that the density  $\rho$  of the fluid is constant making  $\text{div}(\rho\vec{u}) = 0$ . Since this study is done with an incompressible fluid, the mass conservation equation is given by:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (3.3)$$

### 3.4.2. CONSERVATION OF THE MOMENTUM – SECOND LAW OF NEWTON

Newton's second law describes that the rate of change of momentum of a fluid particle is equal to the sum of the forces on the same particle. Following the same coordinates description, the rates of change of the momentum per unit volume are given in the three principal coordinates:

$$x: \rho \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} ; y: \rho \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} ; z: \rho \frac{\partial w}{\partial t} \quad (3.4)$$

Versteeg (1995) refers that there are two types of forces interacting with the particles of the fluid:

Surface forces, such as pressure and viscous forces.

Body forces, such as gravity, centrifugal, Coriolis and electromagnetic forces.

With this knowledge and making use of the simplification of the newton second law:  $\vec{F} = m \times \vec{a}$  it is possible to obtain the force vector as:

$$F_i = \left( -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x_i} + \nabla \tau_{ij} \right) + \rho f_i \quad (3.5)$$

Where  $\tau_{ij}$  represents the normal and tangential stress in the  $i$  and  $j$  vector direction respectively,  $\rho$  the density of the fluid,  $p$  the pressure and  $f_i$  are the acting forces on the fluid in the direction  $y_i$  (in this case we will only consider the gravitational action).

Making use of the coordinates previously established, it's possible to define the mass of the fluid as:

$$m = \rho \, dx \, dy \, dz \quad (3.6)$$

Defining  $u_i$  as the velocity in the direction  $x_i$  and the time as  $t$ , the acceleration can be stated as:

$$a_i = \frac{Du_i}{Dt} \quad (3.7)$$

Combining the equations 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7 leads to the Navier-Stokes equation in its non-conservative form. According to Anderson (2009), it's possible to obtain the conservation form of this equation by applying the derivation of the conservation law to the linear momentum, obtaining the following:

$$\frac{\partial(\rho u_i)}{\partial t} + \nabla \times (\rho u_i) = \left( -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x_i} + \nabla \tau_y \right) + \rho f_i \quad (3.8)$$

The fluids in study – water and air – are so called Newtonian fluids. This means that the shear stress in these fluids is proportional to the velocity gradients. Using  $\mu$  as the correspondence to the viscosity of the fluid, it is possible to simplify the conservative formula into the following:

$$\rho \left[ \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial (u_i + u_j)}{\partial x_i} \right] = - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_i} + \mu \frac{\partial^2 \mu_i}{\partial x_j^2} + \rho f_i \quad (3.9)$$

#### 3.4.3. CONSERVATION OF ENERGY IN A PARTICLE - FIRST LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS

The energy equation is possible to be obtained through the first law of thermodynamics that says that the rate of increase of the energy of a fluid particle is the sum of the net rate of heat added to the fluid particle with the net rate of work done on the same fluid particle.

It is possible to obtain the rate of heat addition to the fluid particle due to heat conduction across the element boundaries through the next equation referred by Versteeg (1995):

$$-\nabla q = \nabla(k \nabla T) \quad (3.10)$$

Where  $q$  represents the heat flux,  $k$ , the thermal conductivity and  $T$ , the temperature.

Still according to this author, the net rate of energy added by work forces acting on the fluid can be described as:

$$\nabla(p\vec{u}) + \left[ \sum \nabla(u_j \times \tau_{ij}) \right] + \rho \vec{f} \times \vec{u} \quad (3.11)$$

Where  $\rho \vec{f} \times \vec{u}$  represents the gravity force acting on the fluid and the rest of the equations represents the work transfer caused by the forces acting on the surface in study.

It is also know that the total energy on a fluid per mass unit is given by the sum of the internal energy,  $e$ , with the kinetic energy,  $\frac{u^2}{2}$ . The total energy is given by:

$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt} \left( e + \frac{u^2}{2} \right) \quad (3.12)$$

Connecting all the previous equations regarding energy, it is possible to get to the final equation in a non-conservative way:

$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt} \left( e + \frac{u^2}{2} \right) = \nabla(k \nabla T) + \nabla(p\vec{u}) + \left[ \sum \nabla(u_j \times \tau_{ij}) \right] + \rho \vec{f} \times \vec{u} \quad (3.13)$$

### 3.5. TURBULENT FLOW

As George (2003) says, turbulence is a state where the fluid motion is characterized by apparently random and chaotic three-dimensional vorticity. Usually, when there is more than one type of fluid flow, turbulence regularly dominates through all the other phenomena. This leads to an increase on energy dissipation, mixing, heat transfer and drag.

Contrary to what people may think, turbulence is not a chaotic event since it highly depends on time and space. It has although many different features that can resemble to chaos. Assuming that the turbulent solutions behave as non-linear dynamical systems, it's important to know that these depend mainly on their boundary and initial conditions. And on this line of reasoning, these solutions exhibit behaviours that can appear to be random.

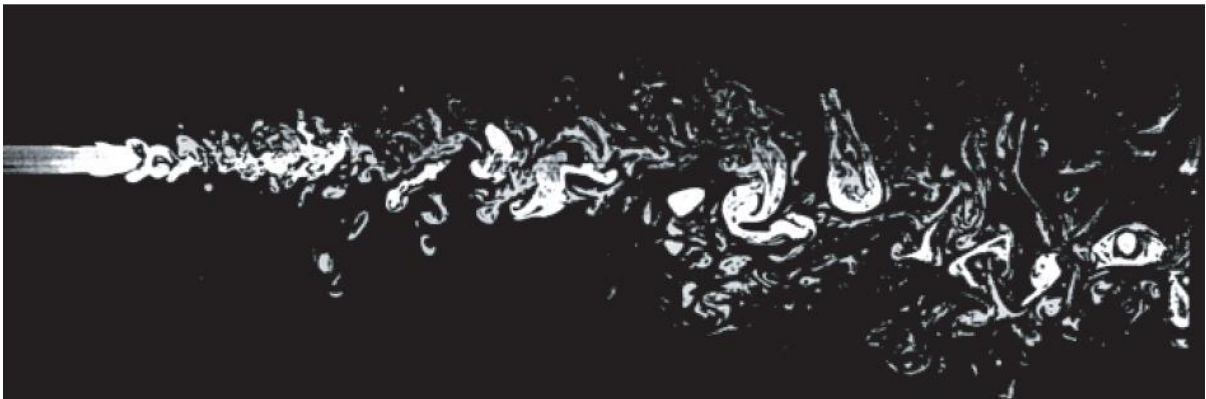


Fig. 15 – Turbulence in a water jet. (Source: Dimotakis, Miake-Lye and Papantoniou, *Phys. Fluids*, 26(11), 3185 – 3192)

It is also a fact that turbulent flows occur for high Reynolds numbers. When Reynolds number becomes too large in laminar flows, instability occurs and consequently the flow becomes turbulent. This instability is related to the interaction of viscous terms and nonlinear inertia terms in the equations of motion. These aspects are one of the causes that make the definition of the equations of turbulence almost intractable.

Other aspect that is responsible for the difficult characterization of the turbulent flow is the three-dimensional vorticity fluctuations. The random vorticity fluctuations that are a main characteristic of turbulence could not exist if the velocity fluctuations were two dimensional leaving out of this characterization, for instance, random waves on the surface of the oceans since they do not have rotational movement.

Dissipation is also a feature for this type of flows. Viscous shear forces implement a deformation that consequently increases the internal energy of the fluid at the cost of kinetic energy of the turbulence. To be able to make up for these viscous losses, turbulence needs a continuous supply of energy.

Another important aspect about turbulence is that this only exists in fluid flows. Turbulence does not occur in fluids by itself making the transverse component of velocity one of the characteristics of turbulence.

### 3.6 TURBULENCE MODELS

As it was said before, turbulence causes the appearance of a big variety of vortices that make the resolution of this type of cases even more difficult.

Versteeg (1995) states that the computational fluid dynamic models, that solve a turbulence problem, should be accurate, simple, economical to run and with a wide applicability. Subsequently, they define three different models:

- Reynolds Averaged Navier-Stokes (RANS)
- Large Eddy Simulation (LES)
- Direct Numerical Simulation (DNS)

#### 3.6.1. MODELS BASED ON REYNOLDS AVERAGED NAVIER-STOKES

Turbulent flows are characterized by the variation of velocity during time and space. These flow problems can be solved using the *Navier-Stokes* equations although it leads to a very long and difficult process. To simplify this process, the *Reynolds* equations are commonly used, leading to the group already mentioned as *Reynolds* averaged *Navier-Stokes*.

Engineers usually focus their attention on certain mean quantities which are velocities, pressures or stresses. Nevertheless, when it comes to execute the time-averaging operation on the momentum equations, the state of the flow contained in the instantaneous fluctuations is neglected and it is sufficient to consider the time mean of the flow properties.

For this reason, the *Reynolds Averaged Navier-Stokes* is one of the most popular models.

This model introduces in the time averaged momentum equations six supplementary unknowns defined as *Reynolds* stresses.

The *Reynolds* momentum equation in the Cartesian coordinates is the following:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho \bar{u}_i) + \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho \bar{u}_i \bar{u}_j) = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x_i} + \mu \frac{\partial^2 \mu_i}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} - \rho(\overline{u_{mi} u_{mj}}) \quad (3.14)$$

Where  $\rho(\overline{u_{mi} u_{mj}})$  represents the apparent stress variation due to the floating rate field, the so called *Reynolds* stresses.

According to Versteeg (2007), the resolution of the *Reynolds* stresses can be obtained through the use of three main categories of the RANS models:

- Linear Eddy Viscosity Model
- Non-Linear Eddy Viscosity Model
- Reynolds Stress Model

The *Reynolds* Stress Model is considered to be the most difficult and complex method of RANS resolution, mainly because it calculates six different transport equations simultaneously.

It will be presented now the most common models in use nowadays.

### 3.6.1.1. LINEAR EDDY VISCOSITY MODEL

Boussinesq published in 1877 a solution for an equation involving eddy-viscosity modelling, introducing, for the first time, this concept. He proposed to relate the turbulence stresses to the mean flow to close the system of equations. In this model, the additional turbulence stresses are given by enlarging the molecular viscosity with an eddy viscosity.

Linear eddy-viscosity models are known to be afflicted with several important weaknesses, among them an inability to capture Reynolds-stress anisotropy, insufficient sensitivity to secondary strains and seriously excessive generation of turbulence in impingement regions.

Uhlmann (2012) states that these models are based on the concept of eddy viscosity of *Boussinesq*. This concept is based on the idea that the viscosities of the turbulent flow stresses are proportional to the average velocity gradient. This hypothesis also considers that the behaviour of the vortices is similar to the behaviour of the molecules in the kinetic theory.

Mathematically, it is possible to write this premise in the subsequent way:

$$\rho(\overline{u_{mi}u_{mj}}) = \mu_T \left( \frac{\partial \vec{u}_{mi}}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \vec{u}_{mj}}{\partial x_i} \right) - \frac{2}{3} \rho k \delta_{ij} \quad (3.15)$$

On the previous equation, the eddy viscosity of vortices is represented by  $\mu_T$  and its expression varies with the model used. The turbulent kinetic energy is represented by  $k$  and  $\delta_{ij}$  it is called *Kronecker delta* and it assumes the value 1 when  $i = j$  and the value 0 when  $i \neq j$ .

According to Versteeg (2007), there are countless models of eddy viscosity but these could be combined according to the additional number of transport equation that needs to be calculated along with the Reynolds Average Navier-Stokes.

The linear eddy viscosity models could be grouped by the following way:

- Zero equation models or algebraic stress models
- One equation models
- Two equation models
- Three equation models

For each one of these groups there is a varied offer of resolution models. For instance, for the algebraic stress models there are the models of Cebeci-Smith, Baldwin-Lomax and Johnson-King models; for one equation models there are the Baldwin-Barth, Spalart-Allmaras e Rahman-Siikonen; and for the three equation models there is the  $k - \omega - A$ .

At least, the most used are the two equation models such as  $k-\epsilon$ , RNG  $k-\epsilon$ , Realizable  $k-\epsilon$ ,  $k-\omega$  and SST  $k-\omega$ .

After a brief explanation about each one of these models, this work will focus mostly on two of the most used resolution models:  $k-\epsilon$  and  $k-\omega$ .

The model  $k-\epsilon$  resorts to two transportation equations: one for the turbulent kinetic energy ( $k$ ) and another for the turbulence dissipation rate ( $\epsilon$ ).

The RNG  $k-\varepsilon$  is a sophistication of the  $k-\varepsilon$  model which is directly derived from the instant Navier-Stokes equation using a mathematical technique known as Renormalization Group Method.

The Realizable  $k-\varepsilon$  is a very recent development of the  $k-\varepsilon$  and the biggest difference is that the first one presents a new formulation for  $\mu_t$  and also a new transportation equation for  $\varepsilon$ .

The  $k-\omega$  uses a modified version of the transport equation of  $k$  used on  $k-\varepsilon$  and another transport equation for the specify dissipation rate ( $\omega$ ).

At last, the SST  $k-\omega$  is the Shear Stress Transport model and it is a variation of the  $k-\omega$ . This is a combination of the two standard models  $k-\omega$  and  $k-\varepsilon$ .

This work is going to focus on the two main and most used models:  $k-\varepsilon$  and  $k-\omega$ .

Two equation turbulence models allow the determination of turbulent length and time scale by solving two separate transport equations.

Robustness, economy, and reasonable accuracy for a wide range of turbulent flows explain its popularity in industrial flow and heat transfer simulations.

- STANDARD MODEL  $k-\varepsilon$ .

The standard  $k-\varepsilon$  model is a model based on transport equations for turbulence kinetic energy ( $k$ ) and its dissipation rate ( $\varepsilon$ ). With this model it's possible to consider the effects of convection and diffusion of turbulent energy in the flow.

This model has its grounds on the assumption that the flow is fully turbulent and the effects of molecular viscosity are negligible.

The two equations used to obtain the values of  $k$  and  $\varepsilon$  are the following:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho k) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(\rho k u_j) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \left( \mu + \frac{\mu_T}{\sigma_k} \right) \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_j} \right] + G_k + G_b - \rho \varepsilon - Y_M \quad (3.16)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho \varepsilon) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(\rho \varepsilon u_j) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \left( \mu + \frac{\mu_T}{\sigma_\varepsilon} \right) \frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial x_j} \right] + C_{1\varepsilon} \frac{\varepsilon}{k} (G_k + C_{3\varepsilon} G_b) - C_{2\varepsilon} \rho \frac{\varepsilon^2}{k} \quad (3.17)$$

The contributions from the dilation that occurs in the turbulent surface is represented by  $Y_M$ .

The values of  $\sigma_k$ ,  $\sigma_\varepsilon$ ,  $C_{1\varepsilon}$ ,  $C_{2\varepsilon}$  and  $C_{3\varepsilon}$  are fixed values and Mazumdar and Guthrie refer to be the sequent:

Table 1 – Fixed values for the Standard Model  $k-\varepsilon$ .

$\sigma_k$	$\sigma_\varepsilon$	$C_{1\varepsilon}$	$C_{2\varepsilon}$	$C_{3\varepsilon}$
1.00	1.30	1.44	1.92	0.20

The generation of turbulent kinetic energy due to the average velocity gradient is represented by  $G_k$  and can be calculated by:

$$G_k = \mu_T S^2 \quad (3.18)$$

Where  $S$  is the module of the average shear stress.

The turbulent kinetic energy generation due to boundary conditions is represented by  $G_b$  and it's calculated by:

$$G_b = -\frac{1}{\rho} \left( \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial T} \right) \times g \times \frac{\mu_T}{Pr_t} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x_i} \quad (3.19)$$

$Pr_t$  is the Prandtl turbulent number for energy and its value is 0.85,  $g$  corresponds to the gravitational component and the value of  $\mu_T$  is calculated with the next equation presented:

$$\mu_T = \rho C_\mu \frac{k^2}{\varepsilon} \quad (3.20)$$

According to Versteeg (2007), it is possible to translate the  $k$ - $\varepsilon$  equations by this expression:

Rate of change of $k$ or $\varepsilon$	+	Transport of $k$ or $\varepsilon$ by convection	=	Transport of $k$ or $\varepsilon$ by diffusion	+	Rate of production of $k$ or $\varepsilon$	-	Rate of destruction of $k$ or $\varepsilon$
--	---	--	---	---	---	--	---	---

To conclude, this model could be used for turbulent flows with free surface and interior flows preferably with low pressure gradients. This model is highly discouraged to be used in flows with separation of the boundary layer, rotating fluids, sudden changes in throttle rate and curved surfaces.

- WILCOX MODEL  $k$ - $\omega$ .

The similarity of this model with the previous lays on the fact that both have a differential equation for the variable of the turbulent kinetic energy  $k$ . The biggest difference is on the second variable. In this model  $k$ - $\omega$  it is possible to calculate the energy dissipation rate represented by  $\omega$ . The value obtained when these equations are calculated represents the turbulence scale which means that it represents the rate at which the energy dissipation occurs.

Relating the kinetic turbulent energy ( $k$ ) with the energy dissipation ( $\varepsilon$ ) and with the specific dissipation rate ( $\omega$ ), Wilcox (1988) has proposed the following:

$$\omega = \frac{\varepsilon}{C_\mu k} \quad (3.21)$$

Resorting to the previous equation, it is possible to write the two main solvers of the kinetic turbulent energy and the specific dissipation rate:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho k) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(\rho k u_j) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \left( \mu + \frac{\mu_T}{\sigma_k} \right) \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_j} \right] + \tau_{ij} \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_j} - \beta^* \rho k \omega \quad (3.22)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho \omega) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(\rho \omega u_j) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \left( \mu + \frac{\mu_T}{\sigma_\omega} \right) \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x_j} \right] + \alpha \frac{\omega}{k} \tau_{ij} \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_j} - \beta \rho k \omega \quad (3.23)$$

Where  $\sigma_k$ ,  $\sigma_\omega$ ,  $\beta^*$  and  $\alpha$  assume the following value:

Table 2 – Fixed values for the Standard Model  $k$ - $\omega$ .

$\sigma_k$	$\sigma_\omega$	$\beta^*$	$\beta$	$\alpha$
2	2	$9/100$	$3/40$	$5/9$

$\tau_{ij}$  can be replaced by  $-\rho \overline{(u_{mi}' u_{mj}')}$  and by using the equation 3.16, it is possible to obtain the solution. The turbulent viscosity  $\mu_T$  can be achieved through the resolution of the following:

$$\mu_T = \rho \frac{k}{\omega} \quad (3.24)$$

According to Versteeg (2007), the main advantage is the simple and exact way of how the behaviour of the flow near the walls is calculated, for low Reynolds numbers. For regions far away from the walls, the dissipation rate tends to zero and the viscosity turbulence starts tending to an infinite value. For these reasons, the values that are sometimes obtained by this model are not reliable and, to overcome this problem, Menter (1993) formulated a new model called *Shear-Stress Transport* (SST).

- SHEAR-STRESS TRANSPORT MODEL  $k$ - $\omega$ .

This model developed by Menter is the combination of the two previous models here explained: the  $k$ - $\varepsilon$  and the  $k$ - $\omega$  model. With this junction, the main flaws from the previous models are eliminated. The SST  $k$ - $\omega$  model behaves like a  $k$ - $\omega$  model in the regions near the walls and then changes this behaviour to a  $k$ - $\varepsilon$  model in the outer regions of the flow.

Besides, the biggest difference from the previous model is that the SST  $k$ - $\omega$  model includes the transport effects in the calculation of the eddy viscosity:

$$\mu_T = \frac{\alpha_1 k}{\max(\alpha_1 \omega S F_2)} \quad (3.25)$$



By doing this, it is possible to predict the beginning and the size of the separation of the flow. The way it is possible to calculate the turbulent kinetic energy is the same as the previous model resorting to the equation number 3.23, but to calculate the rate of dissipation of specific energy it is necessary to apply the next equation:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho\omega) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(\rho\omega u_j) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \left( \mu + \frac{\mu_T}{\sigma_{\omega 1}} \right) \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x_j} \right] + \alpha S^2 - \beta \omega^2 + 2(1 - F_1) \sigma_{\omega 2} \frac{1}{\omega} \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x_1} \quad (3.26)$$

The values of  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are calculated with the use of the equations presented below:

$$F_1 = \tanh \left\{ \left\{ \min \left[ \max \left( \frac{\sqrt{k}}{\beta^* \omega y}, \frac{500\mu}{y^2 \omega} \right), \frac{4\sigma_{\omega 2} k}{CD_{k\omega} y^2} \right] \right\}^4 \right\} \quad (3.27)$$

$$F_2 = \tanh \left[ \left[ \max \left( \frac{2\sqrt{k}}{\beta^*}, \frac{500\mu}{y^2 \omega} \right) \right]^2 \right] \quad (3.28)$$

Where  $CD_{k\omega}$  is:

$$CD_{k\omega} = \max \left( 2\rho\sigma_{\omega 2} \frac{1}{\omega\alpha} \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x_1}, 10^{-10} \right) \quad (3.29)$$

The values of  $\sigma_k$ ,  $\sigma_{\omega 1}$ ,  $\sigma_{\omega 2}$ ,  $\beta^*$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\alpha_1$  are fixed values and are the following:

Table 2 – Fixed values for the SST k- $\omega$  model

$\sigma_k$	$\sigma_{\omega 1}$	$\sigma_{\omega 2}$	$\beta^*$	$\beta$	$\alpha_1$
1.0	2.0	1.17	$9/100$	$3/40$	$5/9$

Versteeg (2007) alerts to the fact that this precise model produces levels of turbulence extremely high in areas where the flow is static and also in areas with high acceleration. Despite this fact, all the other authors consulted present good behaviours and results when using this model.

### 3.6.2. LARGE EDDY SIMULATION

Smagorinsky (1963) developed a method based on the Navier-Stokes equations for the simulation of big atmospheric scales. Later on, this model started to be used in engineering and nowadays it is used in the most diverse areas such as: combustion, acoustics, hydraulics, atmosphere simulations and so on.

Large eddy simulations (LES) are turbulence models where the time-dependent flow equations are solved for the mean flow and the largest eddies and where the effects of the smaller eddies have an isotropic behaviour. For this reason, this last eddies can be neglected.

The LES model uses a space filtration to separate the smaller vortices from the big ones. During this separation, the smaller ones get destroyed allowing the model to numerically obtain the behaviour of the flow resorting to the Navier-Stokes equations for the highest dimensions movements.

$$\frac{\partial \bar{u}_1}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (\bar{u}_i \bar{u}_j) = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{p}}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \left( \mu \frac{\partial \bar{u}_1}{\partial x_j} \right) - \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_1} \quad (3.30)$$

Where  $\bar{u}$  and  $\bar{p}$  represent the velocity and pressure after filtration and  $\tau_{ij}$  is the residual stress it is formulated depending on the sub models of mesh used.

According to Versteeg (2007), the LES model has a high precision regarding the calculation of the Reynolds stress and the terms of transportation. With this precision, there is the need of a bigger computational resolution and a much more fine mesh. The LES model needs the double of the processing comparatively with the RANS model.

The need for a very fine mesh comes from the need that the simulations have to be addressed in such a way that the vortex shear stresses are more tension relieved.

So that this can happen, filtering used cannot be larger than a small fraction of the fixed turbulent local scale. This scale decreased as the wall approaches and with it the width of the filter.

When it comes to the resolution by the LES model, it should be noted that only a few years ago computers began to have enough processing power to simulate flow by this method. (Versteeg. 2007)

### 3.6.3. DIRECT NUMERICAL SIMULATION

The direct numerical simulation (DNS) is based on the numerical modelling of flows through the Navier-Stokes equations without any help or with the approach of turbulence models.

The full ranges of temporal and spatial turbulent scales have to be resolved, regardless of their size. This means that in the direct numerical simulation, the smallest vortex and the fastest fluctuations are settled, meaning that any movement, regardless of their irrelevance, is resolved.

The advantages of direct numerical simulation can be summarized in three points:

- Extremely precise details and parameters of movement of turbulence at any point of the flow;
- Instant results, which are not possible to get through experimentation, can be generated in direct numerical simulation;
- Modelling of turbulent flows that are impossible to happen in reality, for better physical perception of this type of flow (eg walls without tensions).

Despite these advantages, direct numerical simulation is almost exclusively applied to research and at low Reynolds numbers.

The fact that all the parameters are thoroughly modelled results in a very time-consuming and costly numerical modelling (Versteeg. 2007).

### 3.7 PRINCIPLES OF SOLUTION OF THE GOVERNING EQUATIONS

The discretization in space is done to better calculate the governing equations of movement. This discretization is done by transforming in smaller and less complex parts in order to facilitate the calculation.

The continuity law states that matter is a continuous medium with no voids in its interior. This principle does not consider the molecular structure, but only their macroscopic form, making it possible to transfer the continuous governing equations for homologous discrete values.

Spatial discretization methods are a tool which enables to approximate those governing equations for a system of algebraic equations, the variables of the problem. These variables will be obtained at discrete locations in space and time.

The development for the different methodologies has gained a major improvement in the last years and is still an area in study.

As it was mentioned on the chapter 3.3, there are two types of meshes (or grids): structured and unstructured. The methods used for the special discretisation schemes rely on these two types of grids and are the following:

- Finite difference method
- Finite volume method
- Finite element method

But before explaining each one of these methods, it is important to first explain the extent to which the different grids influence the used method.

The highest advantage of using a **structured grid** relies on the fact that these meshes follow a logical sense represented by the indices  $i, j, k$ . These indices represent a linear address space that can also be called computational space and they relate to the way the flow variables are stored in the computer memory.

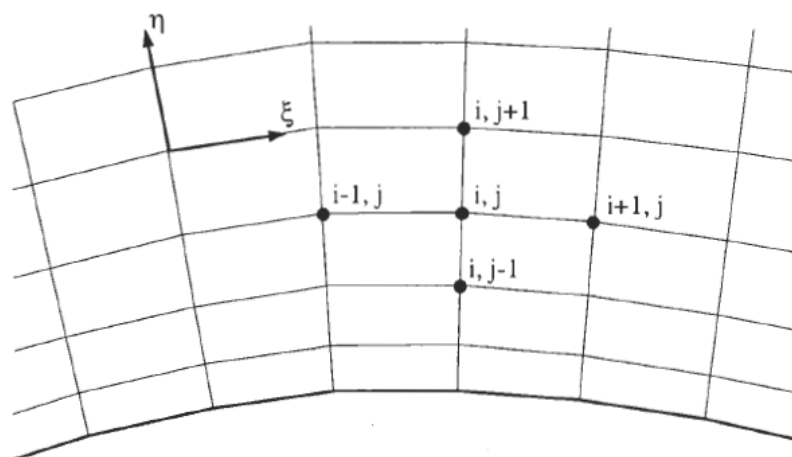


Fig. 16 – Structured mesh (or grid) in two dimensions – physical space. (Source: Blazek, 2001)

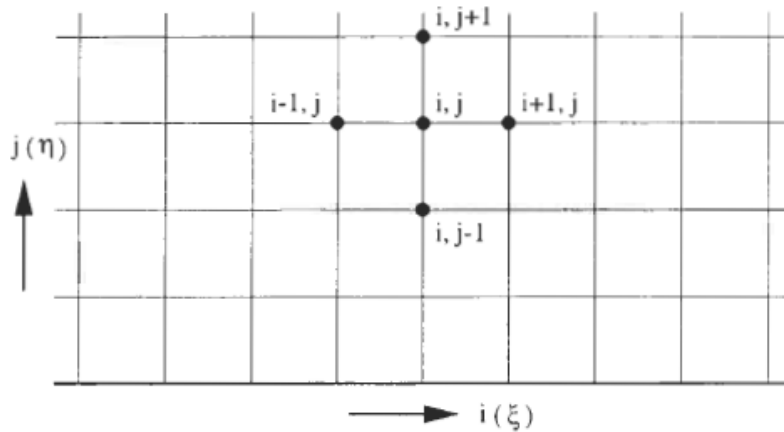


Fig. 17 – Structured mesh (or grid) in two dimensions – computational space. ( $\xi$  and  $\eta$  represent a curvilinear coordinate system). (Source: Blazek, 2001)

Having this characteristic, it allows a quick and easy access to all the neighbour points in a grid by the simple act of adding or subtracting an integer number to the correspondent index (e.g.  $(i+1)$ ,  $(k-3)$ ) as it's shown on Fig. 16 and Fig. 17. This increases the facility of making the evaluation of gradients, fluxes and also to make the treatment of the boundary conditions. It also results in a more efficient memory usage since the neighbouring elements of a given cell are known *a priori* by the structure nature of the mesh.

But using **structured grids** has also disadvantages and the biggest one is that it is difficult to perform structured grids to complex geometries. There is the possibility to simplify this procedure by dividing the space in smaller parts resorting to the multiblocks approach. In any methodology of this type, it is obvious to expect that having more blocks leads to an increase of the complexity of the flow solver, because it is essential that a different logic needs to be used to represent the exchange of physical quantities or fluxes between the blocks. (Blazek 2001)

On the other hand, there are also the **unstructured grids** that offer a large flexibility in the treatment of complex geometries. The main advantage of this type of meshes is that the triangular for 2D meshes or tetrahedral, for 3D meshes, can be generated automatically regardless of the complexity of the domain. Of course it is still necessary to set some restrictions correctly in order to achieve a good quality mesh. There is still a big difference regarding the amount of time taken to construct an unstructured mesh comparatively to a structured mesh, in which the first one is much quicker.

The disadvantage is that it is required to implement a sophisticated data structure inside the flow solver and this data structures, depending on the computer hardware, takes to a more or less reduced computational efficiency. Following these requirements, these structured schemes need a higher memory necessity.

After presenting these two points of view about the grids it is comprehensible that most CFD software implements on their solvers the unstructured flows.

After the generation of the grid, it is now possible to return to the beginning of this sub-chapter and present the methods to proceed to the discretisation of the governing equations briefly explained in the flowing subsections.

### 3.7.1. FINITE DIFFERENCE METHOD

This is the oldest and simpler method for the resolution of differential equations. This method is applied to the differential form of the governing equations. The main principle by which this method is led by is to apply a Taylor series expansion for the discretisation of the derivatives of the flow variables. The main advantage of this methodology is its simplicity and the possibility to easily obtain high-order approximations. By obtaining these approximations, it is possible to consequently accomplish high-order accuracy of the special discretisation.

On the other hand, the disadvantage is that this method requires the application of a structured grid and this leads to a decrease on the application field. When faced with curvilinear coordinates, the finite difference method cannot be applied. Instead, the governing equations need to be transformed into a Cartesian coordinate system which means that they are going to go from the physical space to the computational space. This can be easily perceived by analysing the Fig. 16 and Fig. 17.

This method is, nowadays, commonly used for the direct numerical simulation of turbulence – DNS but because of its harder application to complex grids it's not of common use in industrial cases, for instance.

### 3.7.2. FINITE VOLUME METHOD

This method uses directly the conservation laws – the integral formulation of the Navier-Stokes equations. The main principle that this method supports itself is in the division of the physical space into a number of arbitrary polyhedral control volumes. The control volume is the element in the mesh that has become the domain of the solution. The continuity law is applied in each one of these elements and the division of the mesh is done exactly to simplify the calculation. The precision of the special discretisation depends on the particular scheme with which one of these fluxes is evaluated.

There are two possibilities to define the position and shape of the control volume regarding the mesh and they are as follows:

- Cell centred scheme – the flow quantities are stored at the centroids of the grid cells and the control volumes are identical to the grid cells.

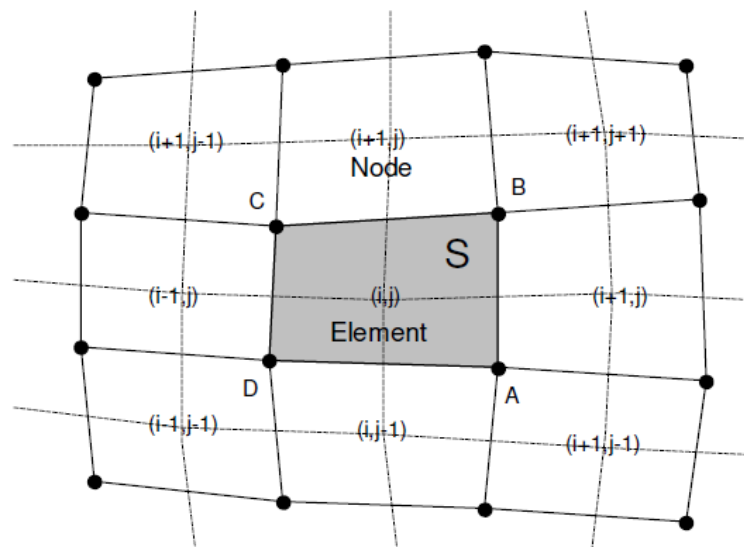


Fig. 18 – Cell centred scheme. (Source: Kolditz, 2001)

- Cell-vertex scheme – the flow variables are stored at the grid points. Now the control volume can be one of two options: or the union of all cells sharing the grid point or some volume centred on the grid point.

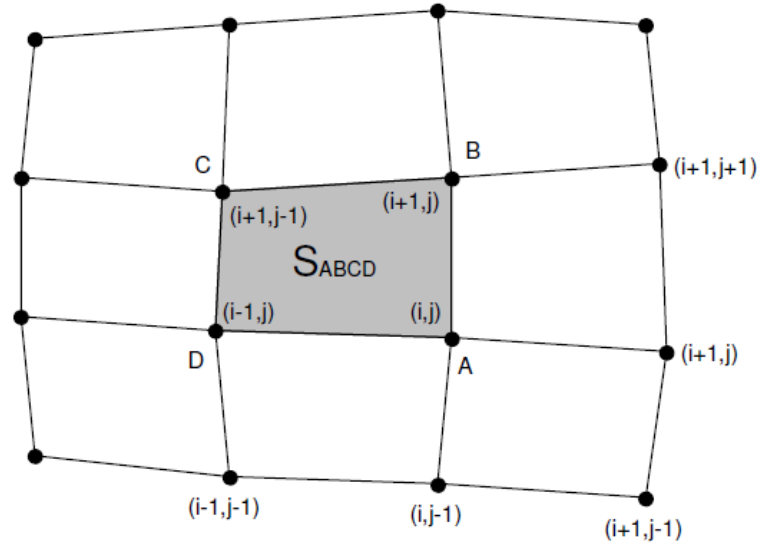


Fig. 19 – Cell-vertex scheme. (Source: Kolditz, 2001)

The main advantage of the finite volume method is that the problem with any type of transformation between coordinate systems does not exist here because the special discretisation is carried out directly in the physical space.

In comparison with other methods, like the finite difference method for instance, one important advantage is that this one is very flexible meaning that it is easily applied in both types of grids, structured or unstructured grids. And this feature is what turns this method in such an important tool on resolving discretisation problems because it can be used for the treatment of flows in complex geometries. Another big advantage of this method is that it directly discretises the conservation laws and by that, mass, momentum and energy are also conserved along the process.

This is the most used method in CFD *software* and it also is used in this MS thesis.

### 3.7.3. FINITE ELEMENT METHOD

On its basic grounds, the objective of this method was to analyse structural problems. With some evolution and research, the finite element method started to be used for the numerical solution of field equations in continuous media.

As the previous method, this one can also be used in unstructured grids and its integral formulation makes it easier to be used in flows or around complex geometries.

This method has a lot of mathematical resemblances to the finite volume method, although the numerical effort in this case is higher to resolve the same type of problems. By this reason, the two can sometimes be combined to resolve the boundaries and the discretisation of the viscous fluxes specially when encountered with unstructured grids.

# 4

## Computational Fluid Dynamics – Procedure

### 4.1. DESCRIPTION OF THE MODEL

The main objective of this work was to validate the possibility of building a numerical model of a running turbine in the software OpenFOAM. Most of the studies, so far, were based on probabilities of occurrence of fish injury and achieving the result with this software could be a support for validation of the existing models.

Most of the numerical studies made so far were accomplished resorting to Propeller turbines like Kaplan and Francis turbines and ,by that fact, the simulation developed in this project will be made with a four blade propeller turbine.

An exact model of a complete turbine with all its components would be very extensive for the time available to perform this work and by this it was chosen to generate the part of the turbine that has movement: its rotor and the respective blades. It was also defined a box where the turbine was inserted that afterwards would have an inflow.

This model allows a better comprehension of the values of velocity and pressure while the turbine is in movement.

### 4.2. PROCEDURE

As any CFD analysis, the major point is to obtain a deeper understanding of the problem under consideration and to have valid results, the need to make appropriate choices when it comes to the solver applications is also required.

In every computational fluid dynamics, the basic steps are usually common, regardless the software in question. In this work, making use of the OpenFOAM software, the mandatory steps followed were:

1. Problem definition
2. Pre-processing and mesh generation
3. Choice of turbulence model
4. Selection of boundary conditions
5. Selection of the solver
6. Execution of the numeric study
7. Discussion and verification of the results

After defining the geometry in analysis the same geometry is divided into infinitesimal elements that all together represent the mesh. Once this is defined, the turbulence model is chosen among the ones discussed in chapter 3 and adjusted to the flow properties and to the boundary conditions. After having all this clearly distinct, it is necessary to define the solver that is going to run the problem. This process in question is a typical case of trial and error. The correct mesh generation and refinement and achieving all the correct parameters in all the dictionaries requires an elevated amount of time, especially for beginners in modelling software such as OpenFOAM.

The computer used to run the program was an Intel Core 2 Quad Q9550 @ 2.83GHz with 4 Gb of RAM and the operating system used was *Linux*. This information is useful in order to better understand the required time to run every command including all the missed trials.

#### 4.3. SOFTWARE PROCEDURE – OPENFOAM

The software used in this work was OpenFOAM which means Open Source Field Operation and Manipulation, the version 2.2.0. OpenFOAM works with C++ libraries that are used to create executables that are named *applications*. These *applications* are divided into two categories: *solvers* and *utilities*. *Solvers* have the function to resolve a specific problem in continuum mechanics and *utilities* solve tasks that involve data manipulation.

One of the most valuable features in OpenFOAM is that users can add new solvers and utilities as long as they have the ability of programming and understanding the underlying method.

The main structure of OpenFOAM is shown in Fig. 20:

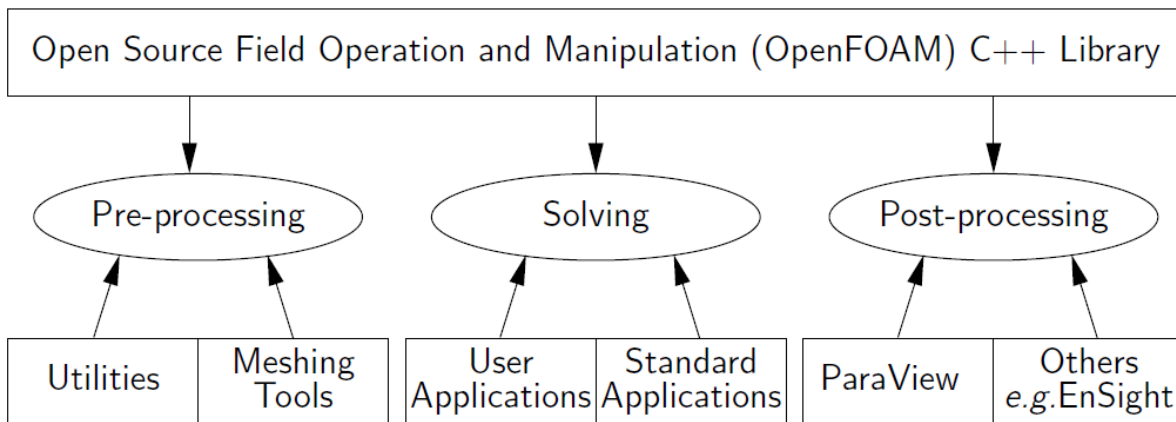


Fig. 20 – Overview of OpenFOAM structure. (Source: OpenFOAM. The Open Source CFD Toolbox. User Guide. 2013)

All the interfaces of pre and post processing are all utilities from OpenFOAM and this guaranties a consistent data handling.

OpenFOAM uses the information kept in three main folders:

- 0
- *Constant*
- *System*



On the 0 folder, that is a time folder, it is saved all the initial conditions defined by the user. On the *constant* folder, the information about the mesh generation as well as the physical properties of the flow are saved. All the information regarding the solvers is stored on the *system* folder.

The main structure of this work folder was the following:

- 0
  - alpha1
  - k
  - nut
  - omega
  - p
  - U
- constant
  - polyMesh
    - blockMeshDict
    - boundary
    - faces
    - neighbour
    - owner
    - points
  - trisurface
    - original.stl
  - dynamicMeshDict
  - g
  - mechanicalProperties
  - RASProperties
  - transportProperties
  - turbulenceProperties
- system
  - controlDict
  - createPatchDict
  - decomposeParDict
  - fvSchemes
  - fvSolution
  - setFieldsDict
  - snappyHexMeshDict

After running all the commands, more time folders will be created in the main folder. In these dictionaries there is all the necessary information to the development of the mesh and the flow.

To create the simple meshes, it's possible to introduce all the coordinates of the points in the dictionary *blockMeshDict*, but when it comes to meshes of higher complexity, such as a turbine, OpenFOAM provides a mesh generator called *SnappyHexMesh*. To use this generator, it is necessary to introduce its respective dictionary in the *system* folder and also a *stereolithography* file (.stl) in the folder *triSurface* in the *constant* folder.

The available platform to visualize the results is called *ParaView* and it is accessible by running *paraFoam* in the terminal.

To finalize, OpenFOAM allows the resolution of so many different type of problems in many different geometries, which is its biggest advantage. But, unfortunately, it is not yet a software with an intuitive interface making its correct use longer than expected. It is also a software with large memory requirements that lead to a slow process of resolution.

#### 4.4. GEOMETRY DEFINITION AND BOUNDARY CONDITIONS

As it was said before, the definition of the geometry is defined on the dictionary *blockMeshDict* that is stored in the folder *constant*. In this dictionary, it is possible to establish different geometries through blocks of hexahedral cells.

The dictionary requires the definition of the vertices, the blocks and also the number of cells in each block. The higher the number of cells in each block, the higher is the precision of the simulation.

The dictionary is naturally defined in meters but the user can change the measurement by altering *convertToMeters* from 1 to the ratio in question (to mm would be 0.001, for example). After this, it's necessary to write the coordinates of the vertices in the form of  $(O_x, O_y, O_z)$ . The third dimension can never be empty, otherwise the program will give an error. Each one of the vertices has a number and with the combination of the different numbers it's possible to define the blocks. It is strictly necessary that each block has 8 coordinates as it's shown in Fig. 21.

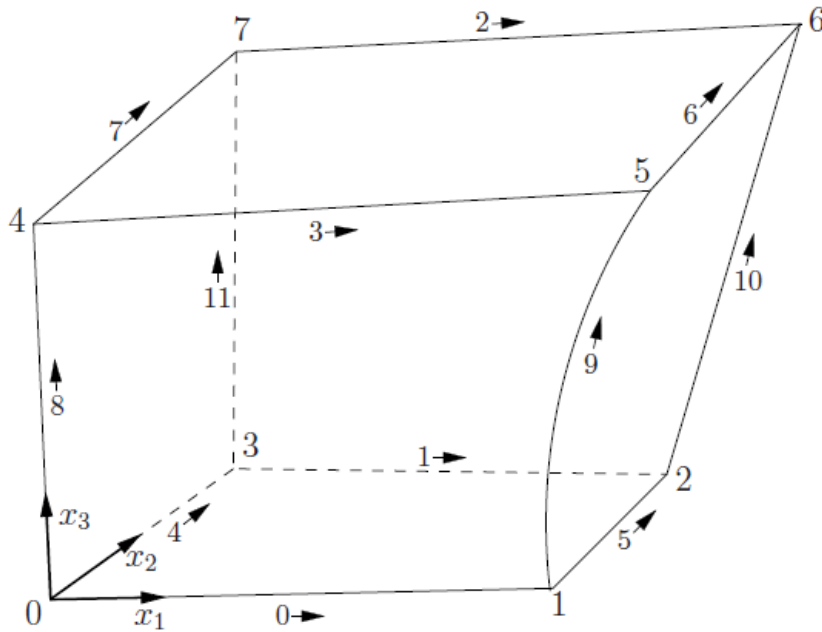


Fig. 21 – Single block structure. (Source: OpenFOAM. The Open Source CFD Toolbox, User Guide, 2013)

In the *blockMeshDict* it is also necessary to write the boundary conditions. The OpenFOAM recognizes the following:

- *patch*;
- *wall*;
- *empty*;
- *wedge*;
- *cyclic*;
- *processor*.

The entrance and the exiting of the flow were defined as *patch* and were represented in the dictionary with the names *inlet* and *outlet* respectively. The *patch* boundary is used to define any condition that contains no geometric or topological information about the mesh. For the other boundaries, the type used was *wall*. This boundary is used for patches that are coincident with walls and need to be identified as such.

After running *blockMesh* it's possible to verify in *ParaView* the geometry defined in Fig. 22.

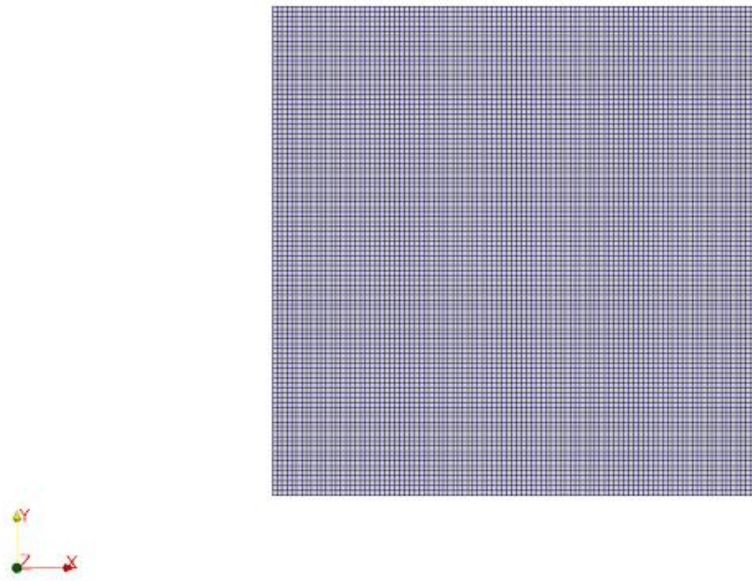


Fig. 22 – Block defined with *blockMeshDict* (image generated by ParaView)

The importance of defining this block is that the mesh of the turbine will be cut out from this block. The flow runs through this mesh and identifies the turbine as a solid body. This cut will be shown above.

#### 4.5. MESH GENERATION

The mesh of the turbine was generated by resorting to the OpenFOAM utility *snappyHexMesh*. This utility generates three dimensional meshes containing hexahedra and split-hexahedra automatically from triangulated surface geometries in stereolithography format. This utility works by iteratively refining a starting mesh and morphing the resulting mesh into the surface. It is possible to adapt the mesh refinement level.

The process of generating a mesh using this utility starts with defining the stl file that is going to be used and stored it in the folder *constant/triSurface*. Due to the complexity that is defining properly a mesh to obtain valid results, the geometry of the turbine should not be of high complexity. By this matter the chosen stl file was presented in Fig. 23.

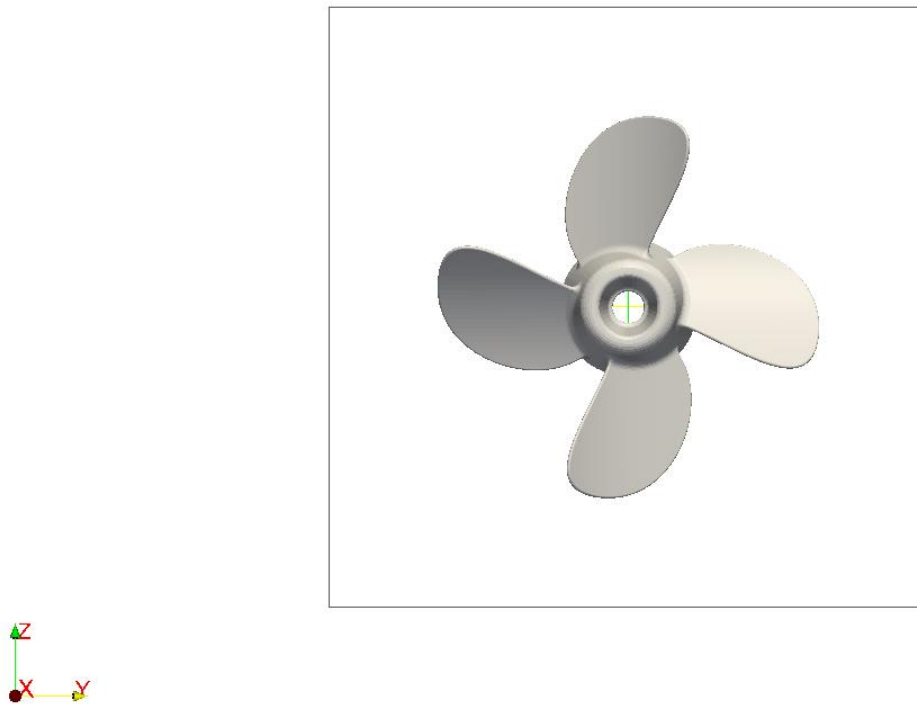


Fig. 23 – stl file of the turbine (image generated by *ParaView*)

After having the stl file defined, it is necessary that a *snappyHexMeshDict* dictionary, with all the correct entries, is located in the system folder. This dictionary includes the possibility of controlling the various stages of the meshing process and sub-directories for each one of this stages with also the possibility of being modified in order to achieve the best quality mesh possible.

In order to improve the mesh quality, but at the same time with the concern to not overwhelm the running system, it was defined that the refinement made for each cell with an edge higher than 1cm was of a level 2. This means that, for this level of refinement, each element will be split into 4x4 equal elements.

After defining the level of refinement, it was required to express the *keepPoint* and this is done by the *castellatedMeshControls*. It is necessary to define a vector inside the region that is going to be meshed and should not be coincident with a cell face either before or during refinement.

The next step was to snap the surfaces, meaning that cell vertex points are moved onto geometry in order to remove the jagged castellated surface from the mesh.

All the choices made for each one of the keywords presented in the *snappyHexMeshDict* are accessible in this same dictionary in the attachments. And it is also important to refer that all these steps here discretized are automatically done when the user runs the command.

After running *snappyHexMesh* in the terminal, it's possible to better comprehend how the mesh is configured (Fig. 24) and gives the possibility to make changes in specific areas of the mesh, by improving the refinement if necessary.

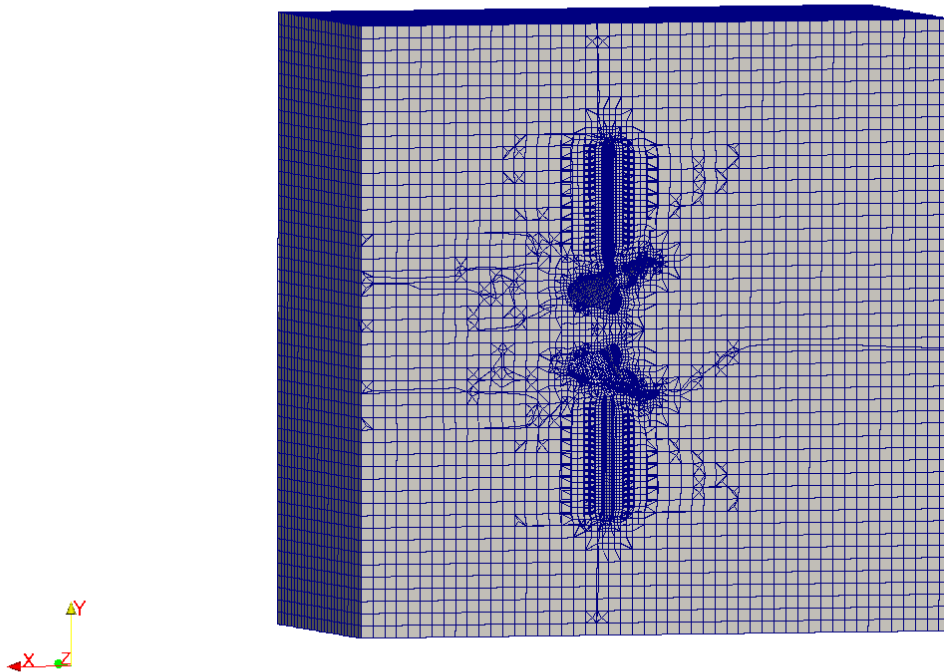


Fig. 24 – Part of the view of the turbine mesh (image generated by *ParaView*)

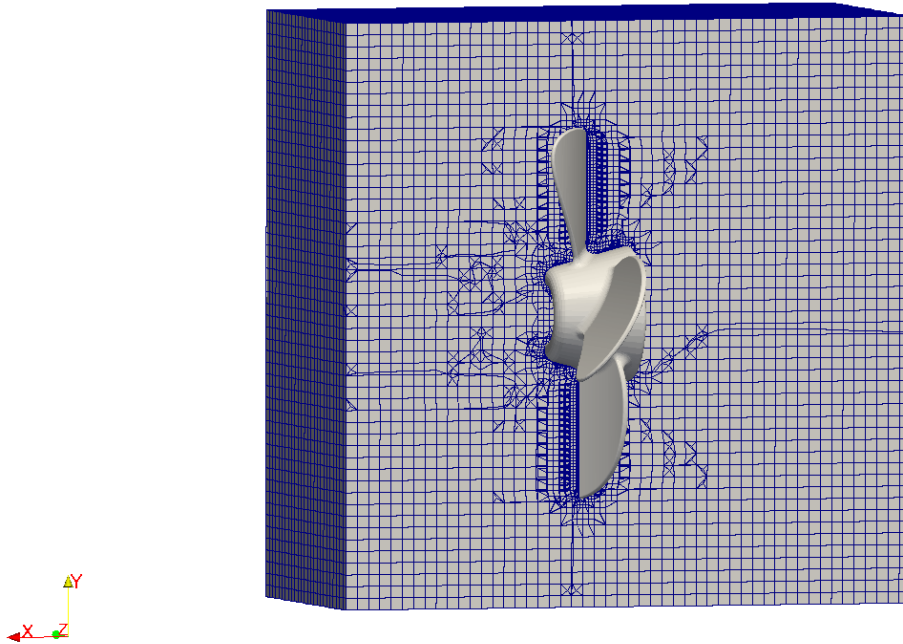


Fig. 25 – Part of the view of the turbine mesh with the .stl file (image generated by *ParaView*).

In the two images above (Fig. 24 and Fig. 25), it's possible to better comprehend how the mesh is generated by *snappyHexMesh*.

#### 4.6. NUMERICAL RESOLUTION MODELS

The choice of the numerical resolution models is one of the important decisions to make when simulating a problem like this. The OpenFOAM software can calculate turbulence resorting to three models already discussed above: RAS, LES and DNS.

Since the main objective of this work was to confirm if it was possible or not to simulate a running turbine in this software regardless of the hydraulic regime, the LES and the DNS models were set aside. The flow considered in this work would be small and the time required to run any of these models would not have justified the use of any of them.

The RAS model (*Reynolds-Average Simulation*) was chosen to perform the simulation. In the first attempt, the numerical resolution model chosen to solve the problem was the Standard Model  $k-\varepsilon$ . After many attempts to find the balance point between the levels of refinement of the mesh, the resolution model and the solver the same error was constantly appearing. The error was that OpenFOAM was finding a “wrong token type - expected Scalar, found on line 0 the word 'nan'”. The explanation for this error relies on the model chosen. The Standard Model  $k-\varepsilon$  has trouble modelling near walls and can only do it if the flow is in a total state of turbulence. Since this criterion was not true in the beginning of the running process, the model was unsuccessful.

After this trial and error, the resolution model was changed to the Shear-Stress Transport Model  $k-\omega$ . This is a more ample model that is not that affected by the mesh in study or the flow properties.

In the folder *constant* there is the dictionary needed to state all the choices, regarding the resolution model. In the *turbulenceProperties* dictionary, it's necessary to define the RAS model and after that, in the *RASProperties* dictionary, it was chosen the SST  $k-\omega$  method.

#### 4.7. INITIAL CONDITIONS

All the initial conditions that the program had to take into account before the beginning of the simulation are in the 0 folder. Each one of the dictionaries presented in this folder characterizes one of the properties that the user wants to see in the simulation.

- *alpha1*;
- *nut*;
- *U* ;
- *k* ;
- *p* ;
- *omega*;

In the dictionary *alpha1* is where it's possible to define the cells where the flow is. It's given the value 1 to the cells where the water should be and 0 to the cells where it shouldn't. It was defined on the patch *inlet* the only *inflow* and was given the value 0 to all the other boundaries. The characteristics of the walls were defined in the *nut* dictionary, the velocity in the *U* dictionary and the turbulent kinetic energy in the *k* dictionary. The pressure is defined in the *p* dictionary and depending on the type of the resolution model it can be used the *omega* or the *epsilon* model.

#### 4.8. DEFINITION OF THE MOVEMENT OF THE TURBINE

If proceeding simulations in OpenFOAM with steady grids could be difficult, with dynamic meshes it's definitely challenging. The functionalities available to improve movement in OpenFOAM software include solid body motion of a mesh according to the defined motion function, internal motion like distortion among other that are calculated from boundary motion, dynamic refinement and unrefinement of hexahedral meshes and prescribed motion of the mesh.

##### 4.8.1. FIRST APPROACH RESORTING TO ANGULAR OSCILLATING VELOCITY

To begin the process of inducing movement to the turbine was added to the folder 0 the dictionaries *pointMotionU* and *cellMotionU*. Both of them contain the input values that control the movement of the oscillating patch, in this case: *turbine\_path28539*.

After the definition of these two dictionaries, it was also required to change the *fvschemes* and the *fvsolutions* and finally the motion solver.

The OpenFOAM software provides two libraries that can produce the oscillation of the patches. They are called *angularOscillatingVelocity* and *angularOscillatingDisplacement*. In this work it's the *angularOscillatingVelocity* that is going to be used. With this function, the velocity of each point is calculated for each time step.

In the library defined as *libOscillatingVelocityPointPatchVectorField.C* it's possible to change the function that is already defined to move the patches. The one used in this work followed this mechanism:

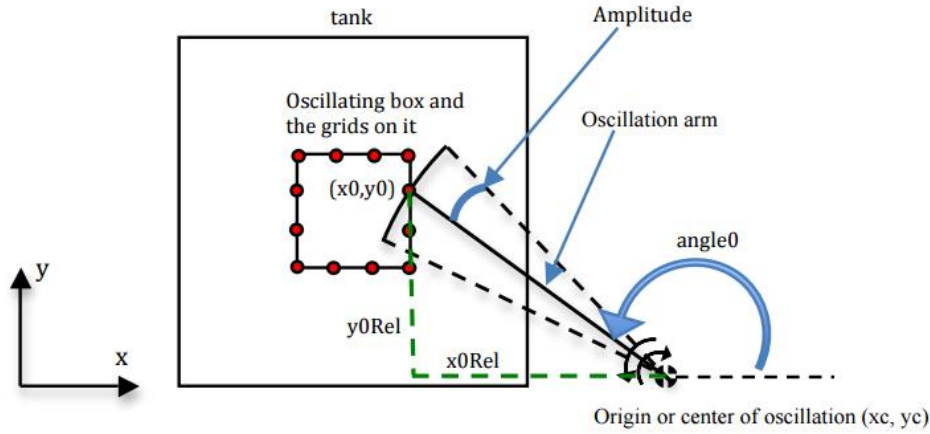


Fig. 26 – Mechanism of Oscillating Velocity. (source: Eslamdoost 2010)

For each time step, it's calculated a new angle for the oscillation arm after the user has defined the angular oscillation amplitude and frequency. This angle is calculated by:

$$angle = angle0 + amplitude \times \sin(\omega \cdot t) \quad (4.1)$$

As it's possible to see in the Fig. 26, *angle 0* is the initial angle of the oscillation arm and *amplitude* is the amplitude of the angular oscillation. *Amplitude* works as a weight factor, controlling the new angle in each time step. The frequency of the angular oscillation is represented by  $\omega$  and  $t$  is the actual run time of the simulation.

To use this library there needs to be a link on the controlDict dictionary that leads the program to use this application. On the controlDict dictionary, it was added the keyword *libs* ("*libMyOscillatingVelocityPointPatchVectorField.so*").

After altering the *controlDict* dictionary it is also important to add new keywords to the dictionaries *fvsolution* and *fvschemes*. In these two dictionaries, it needs to be specified which type of solver the program should use to simulate the movement. OpenFOAM simulates the movement resorting to the following solvers: PCG/PBiCG, smoothSolver and GAMG. The chosen one to solve the *cellMotionU* was the GAMG solver. This is a solver to generalised geometric-algebraic multi-grid and is much more inclusive than the others. It was also necessary to choose the respective preconditioner. The one used was DICGaussSeidel.

Another important step before running the simulation is defining a *dynamicMeshDict* dictionary stored on the *constant* folder. Once again, there are two parameters of high importance: the solver and the diffusivity scheme. The solvers can be chosen from this three:

- displacementLaplacian;
- velocityLaplacian;
- SBRStress.



The chosen one was *velocityLaplacian*. The diffusivity models can be divided into two categories: quality-based methods and distance-based methods. Regarding the quality-based methods there is the possibility to choose from:

- uniform;
- directional;
- motionDirectional;
- inverseDistance.

In the group of distance-based methods it's possible to choose from:

- linear;
- quadratic;
- exponential.

The selected one was the *uniform*. After defining each one of these points it is also necessary to define both *pointMotionU* and *cellMotionU* dictionaries. They are both stored in the 0 folder. The parameters defined in these two folders are the following:

- *axis* – represents the axis of rotation, defined in meters.
- *origin* – center of the rotation, defined in meters.
- *angle0* – angle which the oscillation occurs, defined in rad.
- *Amplitude* – amplitude of the angular oscillation, defined in rad.
- *Omega* – angular oscillation frequency, defined in rad/s.

After running and adjusting several times this problem, the solution was never properly obtained. The solver couldn't find convergence and that can be due to the mesh but more precisely to the movement. This was not a good strategy to impose movement to the turbine and another solution needed to be found.

#### 4.8.2. SECOND APPROACH RESORTING TO ANGULARVELOCITY

Although the first solution was not proper to the problem in question, the reasoning followed was not completely wrong. Like in every other open source software, the user has the possibility to change the code where the functions are defined. From the list of available boundary types, the one explained in the previous topic is an adequate starting point. After finding the directory for the *angularOscillatingVelocity* this was copied to the folder where the study was being made and it was renamed. In the .C and .H files, any mention of the word *Oscillating* was erased not only from the names of the files, but also inside them.

The next point was defining the better solution to the problem in study. Inside the .C file it was defined the following equation:

$$\text{scalar angle} = \text{angle0\_} + \text{amplitude\_} * \sin(\text{omega\_} * t.\text{value}(\ )); \quad (4.2)$$

It is possible to infer from here how *OpenFOAM* is coded. Equations can be written in a much similar way from math notation.

This is where modification should be done in order to obtain the desired movement. The new equation is:

$$\text{scalar angle} = \text{angle0\_} + \text{omega\_} * t.\text{value}(\text{ }); \quad (4.3)$$

The *amplitude* and the *sin* function were eliminated. In the two files .C and .H all the lines of code where the word *amplitude* appears were eliminated as well.

After this was defined, the compilation of the parameters was determined. The *files* file inside the *Make* directory changed into:

```
angularVelocity/angularVelocityPointPatchVectorField.C
```

```
LIB = $(FOAM_USER_LIBBIN)/libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
```

The first line leads to the location of the .C file with the source code and the second to the directory where user libraries for *OpenFOAM* are stored followed by the name of the library that was created.

Once all the files were correctly defined, it was necessary to compile the library by running:

```
wmake libso
```

After this new library was created, there is the need to define in the *controlDic* dictionary the path where the program needs to find the new code to solve the problem. So, in this dictionary, it is added:

Libs (“libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField.so” “libOpenFOAM.so”)

After this library is defined, the boundaries in the dictionaries *pointMotionU* needs to be corrected according to the new library created. The important part of this library is the part where the boundary of the turbine is defined and it’s the following:

```
turbine_patch28539
{
    type libAngularVelocity;
    axis (1 0 0);
    origin (0 0 0);
    angle0 0;
    omega 20.94; //200rpm
    value uniform (1 0 0);
}
```

A propeller turbine can go from 79 rpm to 429 rpm. Since this is a numerical study, an intermediate value was chosen: 200rpm that correspond to 20.94 rad/s.

Before running the problem, it is important to verify if the mesh is well constructed and so it’s necessary to run *checkMesh*. The *log* file that is acquired when running this is in the appendix E.

Due to the high computational requisitions of the software, it was used the *decomposePar* tool that divides the main processor into 8 smaller processors and by that it is possible to achieve quicker results. Nevertheless, attention must be taken when doing this because a lot of boundary conditions may not be correctly handled and the user needs to correct them manually.

Since the flow simulation requires a small time step, making the calculations longer in time it is possible to simply run *moveMesh*. This command will only calculate the movement of the mesh without taking into account the flow variables.

After reconstructing the processors it is possible to visualize the results from Fig. 27 to Fig. 32.

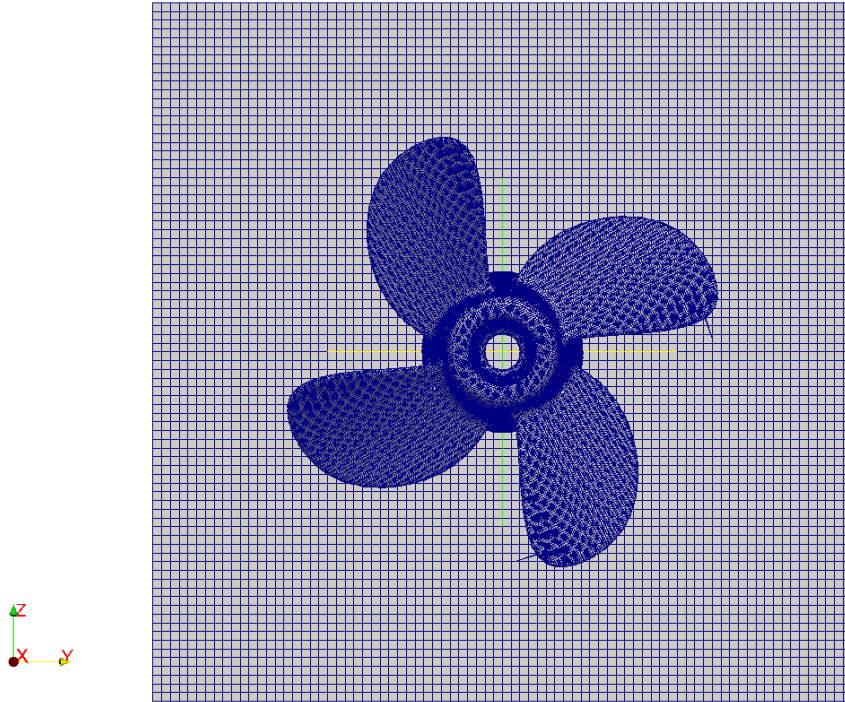


Fig. 27 - Time step 1 corresponding to 0.01s. (image generated by *ParaView*)

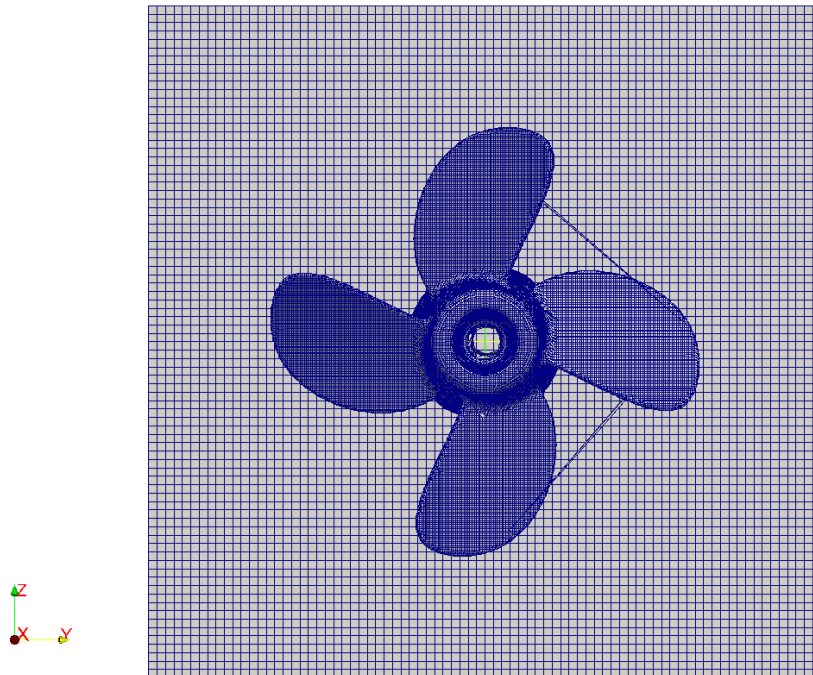


Fig. 28 - Time step 15 corresponding to 0.15s. (image generated by *ParaView*)

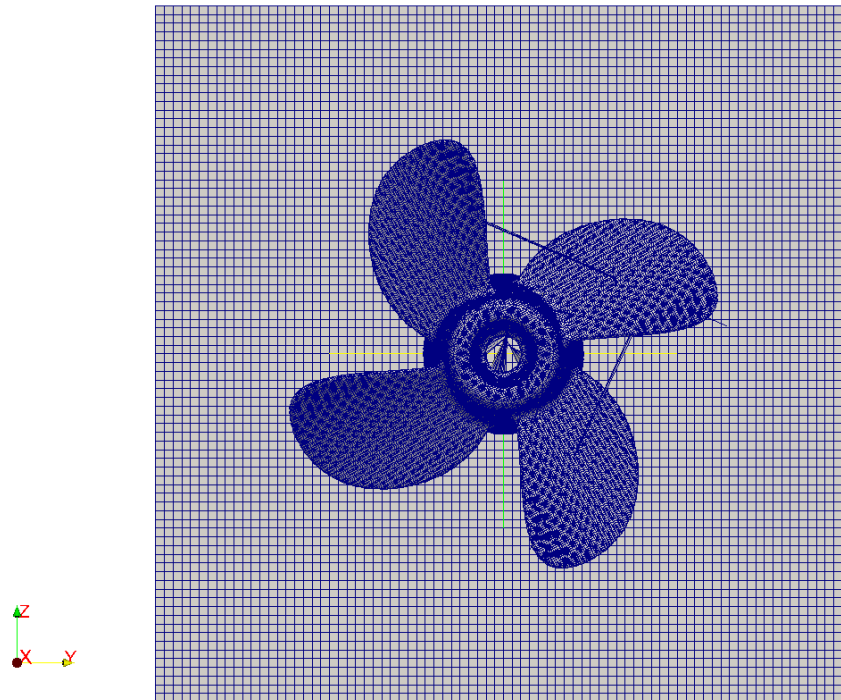


Fig. 29 - Time step 100 corresponding to 1s. (image generated by *ParaView*)

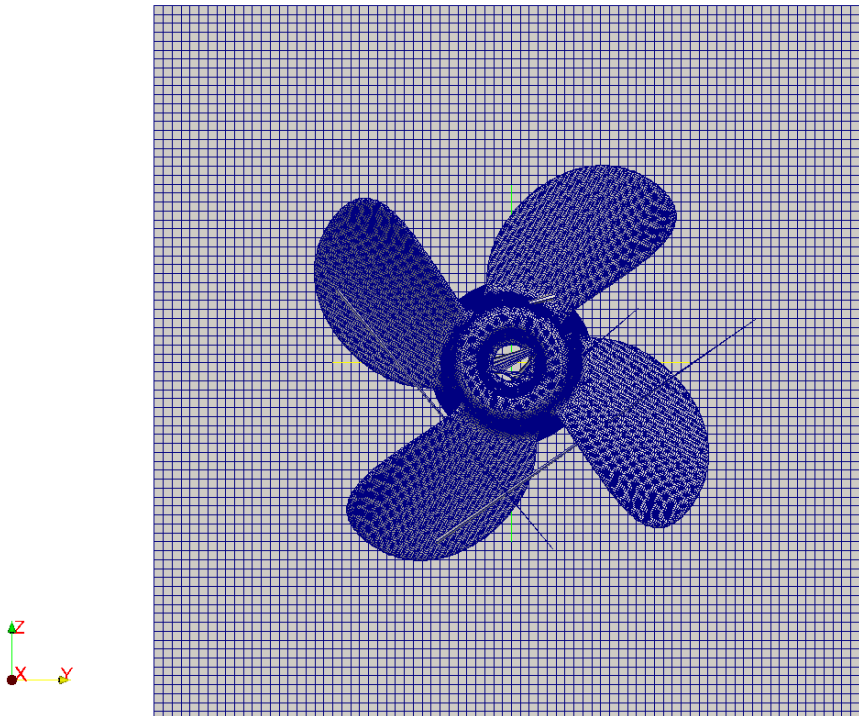


Fig. 30 - Time step 200 corresponding to 2s. (image generated by *ParaView*)

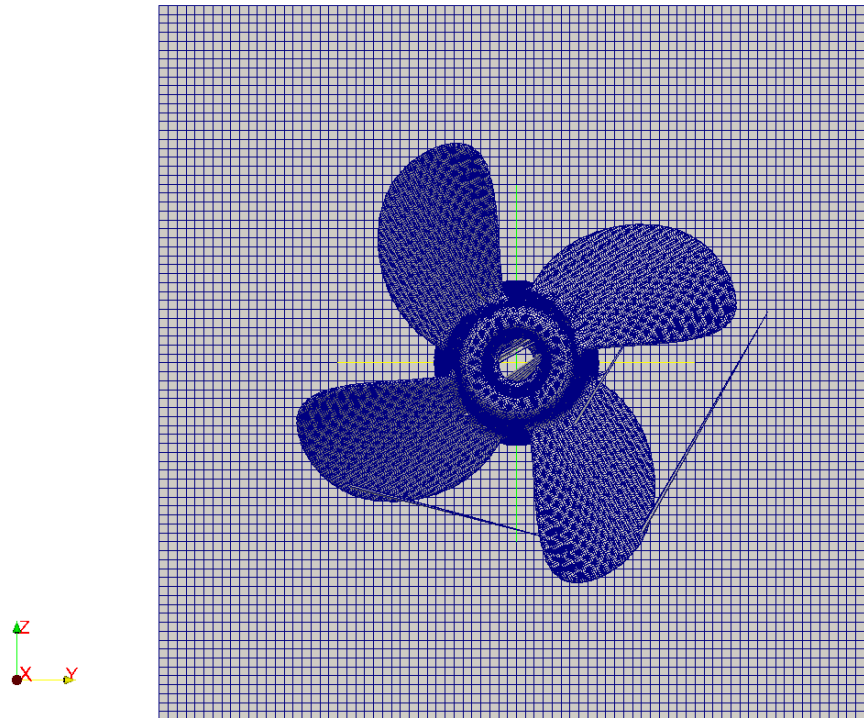


Fig. 31 - Time step 250 corresponding to 2.5s. (image generated by *ParaView*)

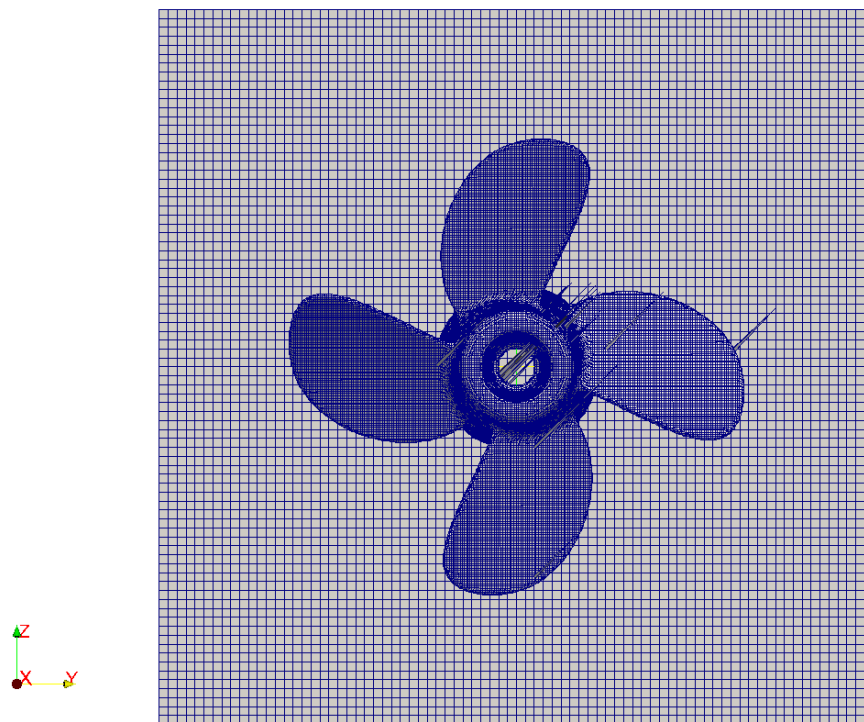


Fig. 32 – Time step 300 corresponding to 3s. (image generated by *ParaView*)

#### 4.9. SOLUTION AND ALGORITHM CONTROL

All the equation solvers, tolerances and other algorithm controls that the program has to follow to achieve a result are stored in the dictionary *fvSolution* stored in the *system* folder. In this dictionary there are some sub-dictionaries that include *solvers*, *relaxationFactors*, *PISO* and *SIMPLE*.

The first sub-dictionary in *fvSolution* is the *solver* and the user needs to specify what the linear-solver for each discretised equation is. The main idea is that the main solver chosen to simulate the problem – in this case *pimpleDyMFoam* – solves each one of the equations specified here, like the velocity  $U$  and the pressure  $p$ . The dictionary for each one of these keywords also has the type of solver and its parameters. This last one includes *tolerance*, *reTol*, *smoother*, *cacheAgglomeration*, *nCellsInCoarsestLevel*, *agglomerator* and *mergeLevels*.

The chosen solver for pressure ( $p$ ) and the cell movement (*cellMotionU*) was GAMG – generalised geometric-algebraic multi-grid. Although in an early stage of the development of the work it was selected the PBiCG – Preconditioned bi-conjugate gradient for asymmetric matrices, this wasn't allowing the simulation to even run till the end. This was caused by the fact that the solver could not make the correct convergence of the flow. Therefore, it was made the decision of changing the solvers of pressure and cell movement to GAMG and continuing to use the solver PBiCG in velocity and turbulent kinetic energy.

Changing to the GAMG solver allowed that the simulation could run slightly faster since this solver acts by generating a solution resorting to only a small number of cells. The second step is mapping the solution onto a finer mesh assuming the results already obtained before.

After choosing the solver, it is necessary to select the correspondent preconditioned conjugate gradient solver. The ones that *OpenFOAM* recognizes are:

- *DIC*, Diagonal incomplete-Cholesky;
- *FDIC*, faster diagonal incomplete-Cholesky;
- *DILU*, diagonal incomplete-LU;
- *Diagonal*;
- *GAMG*;
- *None*, when the choice is to have no preconditioning.

The preconditioner chosen was the DILU for this work.

Another keyword that needs definition is the *smooth solvers* that are:

- *GaussSeidel*;
- *DIC*;
- *DICGaussSeidel*.

*GaussSeidel* is the most reliable one and for that matter the one used with the GAMG solver, since this one requires the specification of a smoother. The tolerance defined started with the value of  $1e-06$  but due to the elevated time needed to run the simulation it was reformed to  $1e-03$ .

Finally, when it comes to algorithms *OpenFOAM*, it gives the possibility to used one of these:

- *PISO* – Pressure implicit with splitting of operator;
- *SIMPLE* – Semi implicit method for pressure linked equations;
- *PIMPLE* – Pressure implicit method for pressure linked equations.

Both PISO and SIMPLE are algorithms that are iterative procedures for solving equations of velocity and pressure. The first one is used to transient problems and the second for steady-state simulations. The common procedure is that both evaluate the initial conditions and then they corrected them. The difference is that SIMPLE only makes one correction and PISO executes more than one and usually less than four. The number of corrections can be defined in the *fvsolution* dictionary. The PIMPLE is a fusion of PISO and SIMPLE and it has two additional possibilities: to correct the loops and to slow down the iterations regarding exterior variables. The convergence is much more effective with this solver and by that matter was the chosen one.

In a first stage, it was used the *pimpleFoam* to better authenticate all the choices made regarding the *fvsolutions*. At a later point, the solver was changed to *pimpleDyMFoam* that is a transient solver for incompressible flows of Newtonian fluids on a moving mesh.

#### 4.10. DATA CONTROL

The OpenFOAM solvers create some database solvers throughout the running process where the data generated is output in these database folders. The time conditions are all available for modification in the *controlDict* dictionary.

The *endTime* was defined for 3 seconds and although this is a small number that can lead to not so good conclusions, the increase of this value leads to simulations in time not suitable for the extension of this work. The *deltaT* was set to 0.01 that supposedly would create folders for each one of this time steps, but that didn't happen due to the high complexity of the mesh. The time-steps were being adapted during the simulation process automatically by the software.

Another factor defined here is the Courant Number that can be calculated by:

$$C_o = \frac{\delta t |U|}{\delta x} \quad (4.2)$$

Where  $\delta t$  is the time step,  $|U|$  is the magnitude of the velocity through that cell and  $\delta x$  is the cell size in the direction of the velocity. Since the flow velocity varies across the domain, it's important to ensure a  $C_o < 1$ . Due to the complexity of the mesh, the chosen value was 0.7 for the Courant number.





# 5

## CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORKS

### 5.1. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The procedure done is explained in the previous chapter and it's qualitatively summarized in the following paragraphs.

The geometry of the casing where the turbine would be inserted was generated by resorting to a dictionary responsible to create a separate list of points for each boundary of the casing. When it comes to the boundaries, they can be easily changed and be adapted to any problem the user decides to solve. Working with a command line interface and not with a graphical user interface, hinders the process and makes it time consuming.

The dictionary *snappyHexMesh* was written in order to obtain a mesh generated from a .stl file. The parameters have been adjusted several times in order to obtain not only a correct refinement but also a high mesh quality. A balance must be found, particularly when it comes to the refinement values. After the refinement, extrusion and snapping it was possible to visualize the generated mesh. While preparing the mesh, the user has to consider a lot of parameters in different dictionaries, which influence the performance of the whole model. Sometimes, these interdependencies are not apparent in the beginning and that can lead to performance problems during the simulation.

After having tried several different approaches to improve the movement on the mesh, a new script, found in the Appendix D.1, has been written for this purpose. A new boundary condition and consequently a new library had to be implemented in *OpenFOAM*.

The mesh was divided into eight parts that can be computed independently on their own processors in order to speed up the simulation. When running *moveMesh*, it is possible to correctly visualize the movement of the turbine without any calculations of the flow. The computing of the movement is the main objective of this work. The possibility of changing the number of rotations per minute and its consequent velocity is left to the user's discretion and, by that, this model can be used with different turbines and different running schemes.

After the flow boundaries were correctly defined, *pimpleDyMFoam* was run in the terminal. This is where the problem was not well succeeded. The program could not solve the equations for the pressure when the mesh was in movement. To better understand the extension of the error, *pimpleFoam* was run in the terminal and in a first trial was not successfully solved. The flow model was then changed to *laminar* instead of *turbulent* and successfully solved. The problem could derive from the fact that the constant mesh deformation and the resolution of the equations to solve the pressure and velocity are not compatible together. This is still field of interest and development.

However the results are not highly irrefutable, they are of interest and by that presented in this work. On the Fig. 33 it is possible to visualize the pressure variation in the casing and in the turbine.

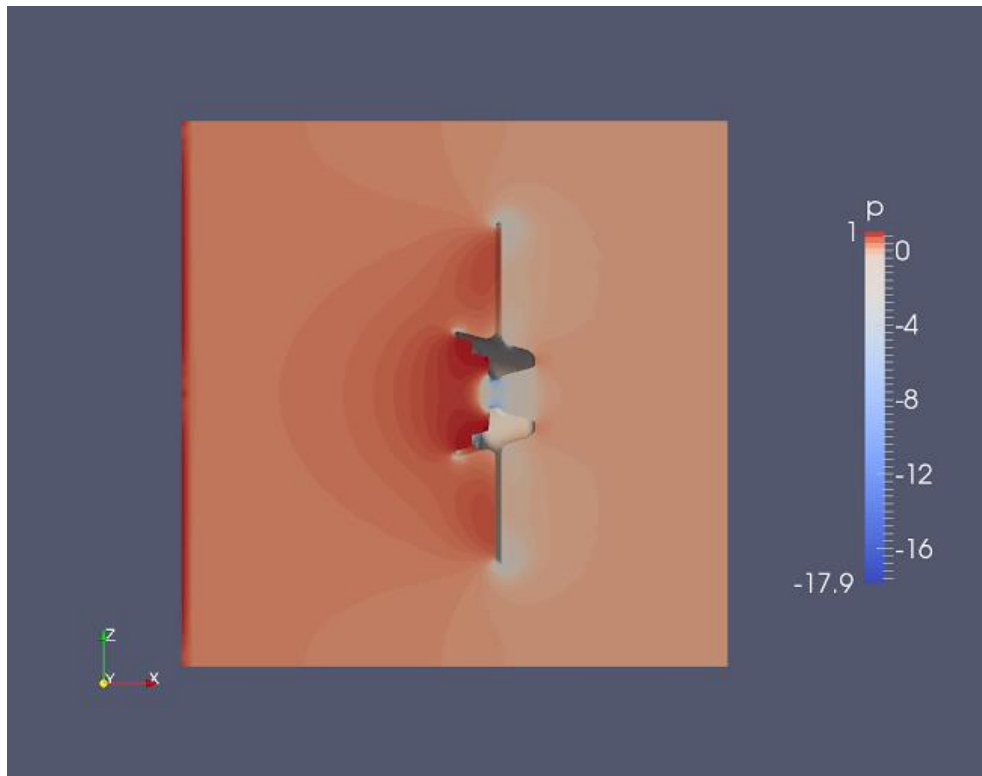


Fig. 33 – Values of pressure in laminar flow

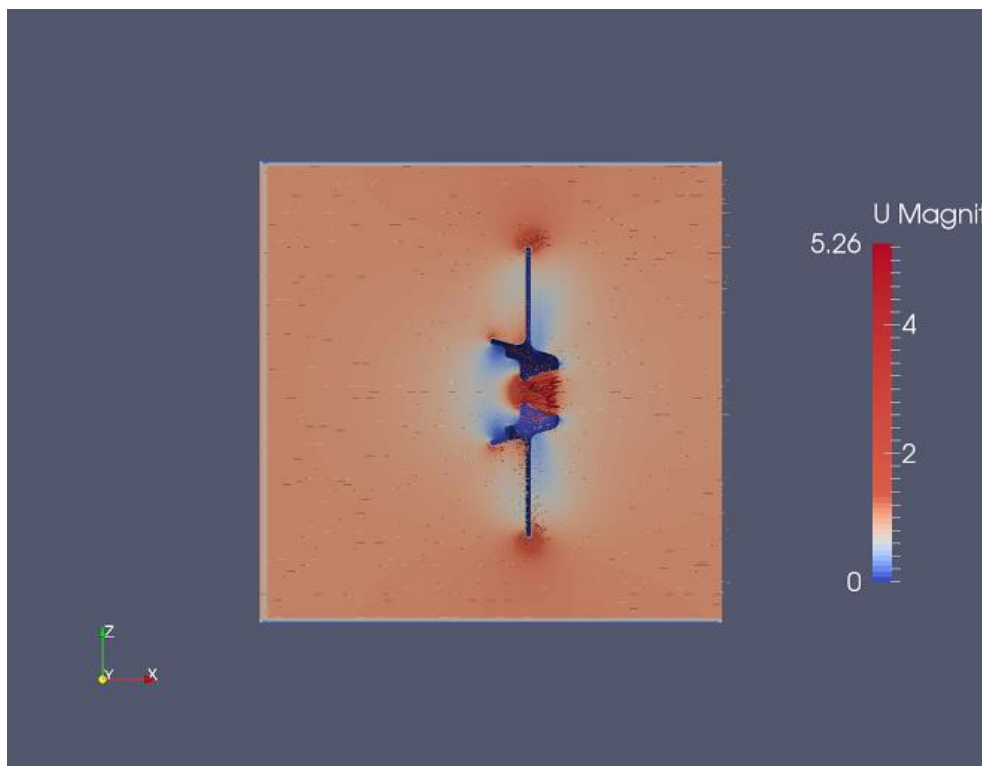


Fig. 34 - Values of velocity in laminar flow

The other feature that was studied was the velocity. In the Fig. 34 it is possible to verify the variations in velocity. The results would be much more accurate if this study was accomplished with turbulent features.

Considering that the study of the flow while the turbine was running was not successfully accomplished, it is not possible to compare numerical results of the values of velocity and pressure near the turbine with the ones obtained so far by field and laboratory experiences.

Although the user-defined boundary conditions were already coded, it is possible to realize the potential of an open-sourced software as OpenFOAM. It allows the user to modify the program with new functionalities or even adapt the ones already created.

## **5.2. FUTURE WORKS**

This work is only a small step in what can be done regarding hydraulic simulation and more precisely the study of fish passage through hydroelectric turbines. The biggest advance that would improve tremendously would be to solve the flow calculations while the mesh is in movement. The correlation between velocity and pressure and how this affects concretely the fish would be necessary study. After that, the next step could be the simulation of more detailed turbines and its casings.

Regarding the hydraulics conditions, the inlet and the outlet could be changed in order to approach the numerical model to the reality for adding pipes or draft tubes.

Furthermore, it would be interesting to simulate cavitation in a three-dimensional mesh. It would be interesting to study and control the interpolations between the deformed meshes and the new ones, generated during the different time steps.

Studying a way of generating new meshes for different time steps instead of resorting to the deformation of the same mesh, could lead to fewer errors while calculating the flows.



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## Appendix

## A – Pre-processing

### A.1. Standart header of OpenFoam

```
/*-----*- C++ -*-----
-----*\
| ===== |
| \\      / F i e l d      | OpenFOAM: The Open Source CFD Toolbox
| \\      / O p e r a t i o n      | Version: 2.1.0
| \\      / A n d      | Web:      www.OpenFOAM.org
|      \\/ M a n i p u l a t i o n      |
|
\*-----
-----*/
FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format      ascii;
    class      dictionary;
    object      blockMeshDict;
}
// * * * * *
* * * //
```

### A.2 constant/polyMesh/blockMeshDict

```
convertToMeters 1;

vertices
(
    (-15 -15 15)
    (15 -15 15)
    (15 -15 -15)
    (-15 -15 -15)
    (-15 15 15)
    (15 15 15)
    (15 15 -15)
    (-15 15 -15)
);

blocks
(
    hex (0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7) (100 80 80) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
);

edges
(
);

boundary
(
    inlet
    {
        type patch;
        faces
        (
```

```

        (0 3 7 4)
    );
}
outlet
{
    type patch;
    faces
    (
        (5 6 2 1)
    );
}
down
{
    type wall;
    faces
    (
        (0 1 2 3)
    );
}
up
{
    type wall;
    faces
    (
        (4 7 6 5)
    );
}
front
{
    type wall;
    faces
    (
        (0 4 5 1)
    );
}
back
{
    type wall;
    faces
    (
        (3 2 6 7)
    );
}
);

mergePatchPairs
(
);

```

### A.3 system/snappyHexMeshDict

```

// Which of the steps to run
castellatedMesh true;
snap           true;
addLayers      true;

```

```

// Geometry. Definition of all surfaces. All surfaces are of class
// searchableSurface.
// Surfaces are used

```

```

// - to specify refinement for any mesh cell intersecting it
// - to specify refinement for any mesh cell inside/outside/near
// - to 'snap' the mesh boundary to the surface
geometry
{
    original.stl
    {
        type triSurfaceMesh;
        name turbine;
    }

    /* Verfeinerung
    {
        type searchableBox;
        min (-1 -10 -10);
        max (6 10 10);
    }*/
};

// Settings for the castellatedMesh generation.
castellatedMeshControls
{
    // Refinement parameters
    // ~~~~~

    // If local number of cells is >= maxLocalCells on any
processor
    // switches from from refinement followed by balancing
    // (current method) to (weighted) balancing before refinement.
    maxLocalCells 500000;

    // Overall cell limit (approximately). Refinement will stop
immediately
    // upon reaching this number so a refinement level might not
complete.
    // Note that this is the number of cells before removing the
part which
    // is not 'visible' from the keepPoint. The final number of
cells might
    // actually be a lot less.
    maxGlobalCells 2000000;

    // The surface refinement loop might spend lots of iterations
refining just a
    // few cells. This setting will cause refinement to stop if <=
minimumRefine
    // are selected for refinement. Note: it will at least do one
iteration
    // (unless the number of cells to refine is 0)
    minRefinementCells 0;
    maxLoadUnbalance 0.10;

    // Number of buffer layers between different levels.

```

```

    // 1 means normal 2:1 refinement restriction, larger means
    slower
    // refinement.
    nCellsBetweenLevels 2;

    // Explicit feature edge refinement
    // ~~~~~

    // Specifies a level for any cell intersected by its edges.
    // This is a featureEdgeMesh, read from constant/triSurface for
    now.
    features
    (
        /* {
            file "someLine.eMesh";
            //level 2;
            levels ((0.0 2) (1.0 2));
        }*/
    );

    // Surface based refinement
    // ~~~~~

    // Specifies two levels for every surface. The first is the
    minimum level,
    // every cell intersecting a surface gets refined up to the
    minimum level.
    // The second level is the maximum level. Cells that 'see'
    multiple
    // intersections where the intersections make an
    // angle > resolveFeatureAngle get refined up to the maximum
    level.

    refinementSurfaces
    {
        original.stl
        {
            level (1 2);
        }
    }

    resolveFeatureAngle 30;

    // Region-wise refinement
    // ~~~~~

    // Specifies refinement level for cells in relation to a
    surface. One of
    // three modes
    // - distance. 'levels' specifies per distance to the surface
    the

```

```

        // wanted refinement level. The distances need to be
specified in
        // descending order.
        // - inside. 'levels' is only one entry and only the level is
used. All
        // cells inside the surface get refined up to the level. The
surface
        // needs to be closed for this to be possible.
        // - outside. Same but cells outside.

refinementRegions
{
    /*Verfeinerung
    {
        mode inside;
        levels ((1 4));
    }*/

}

// Mesh selection
// ~~~~~

// After refinement patches get added for all
refinementSurfaces and
// all cells intersecting the surfaces get put into these
patches. The
// section reachable from the locationInMesh is kept.
// NOTE: This point should never be on a face, always inside a
cell, even
// after refinement.
// This is an outside point locationInMesh (-0.033 -0.033
0.0033);
locationInMesh (-10 -10 10); // Inside point

// Whether any faceZones (as specified in the
refinementSurfaces)
// are only on the boundary of corresponding cellZones or also
allow
// free-standing zone faces. Not used if there are no
faceZones.
allowFreeStandingZoneFaces true;
}

// Settings for the snapping.
snapControls
{
    //- Number of patch smoothing iterations before finding
correspondence
    // to surface
    nSmoothPatch 10;

    //- Relative distance for points to be attracted by surface
feature point
    // or edge. True distance is this factor times local

```

```

    // maximum edge length.
    tolerance 1.2;

    //- Number of mesh displacement relaxation iterations.
    nSolveIter 10;

    //- Maximum number of snapping relaxation iterations. Should
stop
    // before upon reaching a correct mesh.
    nRelaxIter 3;

    //- Highly experimental and wip: number of feature edge
snapping
    // iterations. Leave out altogether to disable.
    nFeatureSnapIter 10;
}

// Settings for the layer addition.
addLayersControls
{
    // Are the thickness parameters below relative to the
undistorted
    // size of the refined cell outside layer (true) or absolute
sizes (false).
    relativeSizes true;

    // Per final patch (so not geometry!) the layer information
layers
    {
        "turbine.*"
        {
            nSurfaceLayers 5;
        }
    }

    // Expansion factor for layer mesh
    expansionRatio 1.5;

    //- Wanted thickness of final added cell layer. If multiple
layers
    // is the thickness of the layer furthest away from the wall.
    // See relativeSizes parameter.
    finalLayerThickness 0.8;

    //- Minimum thickness of cell layer. If for any reason layer
    // cannot be above minThickness do not add layer.
    // See relativeSizes parameter.
    minThickness 0.001;

    //- If points get not extruded do nGrow layers of connected
faces that are
    // also not grown. This helps convergence of the layer
addition process
    // close to features.

```

```

nGrow 0;

// Advanced settings

// - When not to extrude surface. 0 is flat surface, 90 is when
two faces
// make straight angle.
featureAngle 30;

// - Maximum number of snapping relaxation iterations. Should
stop
// before upon reaching a correct mesh.
nRelaxIter 5;

// Number of smoothing iterations of surface normals
nSmoothSurfaceNormals 1;

// Number of smoothing iterations of interior mesh movement
direction
nSmoothNormals 3;

// Smooth layer thickness over surface patches
nSmoothThickness 10;

// Stop layer growth on highly warped cells
maxFaceThicknessRatio 0.5;

// Reduce layer growth where ratio thickness to medial
// distance is large
maxThicknessToMedialRatio 0.4;

// Angle used to pick up medial axis points
minMedianAxisAngle 130;

// Create buffer region for new layer terminations
nBufferCellsNoExtrude 0;

// Overall max number of layer addition iterations. The mesher
will exit
// if it reaches this number of iterations; possibly with an
illegal
// mesh.
nLayerIter 50;

// Max number of iterations after which relaxed meshQuality
controls
// get used. Up to nRelaxIter it uses the settings in
meshQualityControls,
// after nRelaxIter it uses the values in
meshQualityControls::relaxed.
nRelaxedIter 20;
}

```



```

// Generic mesh quality settings. At any undoable phase these
determine
// where to undo.
meshQualityControls
{
    //- Maximum non-orthogonality allowed. Set to 180 to disable.
    maxNonOrtho 60;

    //- Max skewness allowed. Set to <0 to disable.
    maxBoundarySkewness 20;
    maxInternalSkewness 4;

    //- Max concaveness allowed. Is angle (in degrees) below which
concavity
    // is allowed. 0 is straight face, <0 would be convex face.
    // Set to 180 to disable.
    maxConcave 80;

    //- Minimum pyramid volume. Is absolute volume of cell pyramid.
    // Set to a sensible fraction of the smallest cell volume
expected.
    // Set to very negative number (e.g. -1E30) to disable.
    minVol 1e-13;

    //- Minimum quality of the tet formed by the face-centre
    // and variable base point minimum decomposition triangles and
    // the cell centre. Set to very negative number (e.g. -1E30)
to
    // disable.
    // <0 = inside out tet,
    // 0 = flat tet
    // 1 = regular tet
    minTetQuality 1e-30;

    //- Minimum face area. Set to <0 to disable.
    minArea -1;

    //- Minimum face twist. Set to <-1 to disable. dot product of
face normal
    // and face centre triangles normal
    minTwist 0.05;

    //- minimum normalised cell determinant
    //- 1 = hex, <= 0 = folded or flattened illegal cell
    minDeterminant 0.001;

    //- minFaceWeight (0 -> 0.5)
    minFaceWeight 0.05;

    //- minVolRatio (0 -> 1)
    minVolRatio 0.01;

    //- must be >0 for Fluent compatibility
    minTriangleTwist -1;

    //- if >0 : preserve single cells with all points on the
surface if the

```

```

    // resulting volume after snapping (by approximation) is
    larger than
    // minVolCollapseRatio times old volume (i.e. not collapsed to
    flat cell).
    // If <0 : delete always.
    //minVolCollapseRatio 0.5;

    // Advanced

    //- Number of error distribution iterations
    nSmoothScale 4;
    //- amount to scale back displacement at error points
    errorReduction 0.75;

    // Optional : some meshing phases allow usage of relaxed rules.
    // See e.g. addLayersControls::nRelaxedIter.
    relaxed
    {
        //- Maximum non-orthogonality allowed. Set to 180 to
    disable.
        maxNonOrtho 75;
    }
}

// Advanced

// Flags for optional output
// 0 : only write final meshes
// 1 : write intermediate meshes
// 2 : write volScalarField with cellLevel for postprocessing
// 4 : write current intersections as .obj files
debug 0;

// Merge tolerance. Is fraction of overall bounding box of initial
mesh.
// Note: the write tolerance needs to be higher than this.
mergeTolerance 1E-6;

```

#### A.4 0/p

```

dimensions      [0 2 -2 0 0 0 0];

internalField    uniform 0;

boundaryField
{
    inlet                //inlet
    {
        type            zeroGradient;
    }
    outlet              //outlet
    {
        type            fixedValue;
    }
}

```

```

    value      uniform 0;
}
left          //wall
{
    type      zeroGradient;
}
right         //wall
{
    type      zeroGradient;
}
down          //wall
{
    type      zeroGradient;
}
up            //wall
{
    type      zeroGradient;
}
front         //wall
{
    type      zeroGradient;
}
back          //wall
{
    type      zeroGradient;
}
turbine_patch28539 //wall
{
    type      zeroGradient;
}

atmosphere
{
    type      zeroGradient;
}

defaultFaces
{
    type      empty;
}

procBoundary0to1
{
    type      processor;
}

procBoundary0to2
{
    type      processor;
}

procBoundary0to3
{
    type      processor;
}

procBoundary0to4
{

```

```
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary0to5
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to0
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to2
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to3
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to4
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to5
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to0
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to1
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to3
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to6
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to7
    {
        type           processor;
    }
```

```
procBoundary3to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to1
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
}

procBoundary5to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to5
```

```

{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to6
{
    type          processor;
}

}

```

## A.5 0/U

```

dimensions      [0 1 -1 0 0 0 0];

internalField    uniform (0 0 0);

boundaryField
{
    inlet
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (1 0 0);
    }
    outlet
    {
        type          inletOutlet;
        inletValue      uniform (0 0 0);
        value           uniform (0 0 0);
    }
    down
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }
    up
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }
    front
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }
    back
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }
    turbine_patch28539
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    procBoundary0to1
    {

```

```
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary0to2
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary0to3
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary0to4
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary0to5
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to0
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to2
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to3
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to4
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to5
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to0
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to1
    {
        type           processor;
    }
}
```



```
procBoundary2to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to6
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
}

procBoundary4to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to2
```

```

{
    type            processor;
}

procBoundary7to3
{
    type            processor;
}

procBoundary7to4
{
    type            processor;
}

procBoundary7to5
{
    type            processor;
}

procBoundary7to6
{
    type            processor;
}

}

```

#### A.6 0/k

```

dimensions      [ 0 2 -2 0 0 0 0 ];

internalField    uniform 1;

boundaryField
{
    inlet
    {
        type            turbulentIntensityKineticEnergyInlet;
        intensity        0.05;          // 5% turbulent intensity
        value            uniform 1;
    }

    outlet
    {
        type            inletOutlet;
        inletValue        uniform 1;
    }

    down
    {
        type            kqRWallFunction;
        value            uniform 0;
    }

    up
    {
        type            kqRWallFunction;
        value            uniform 0;
    }
}

```

```

}

front
{
    type          kqRWallFunction;
    value         uniform 0;
}

back
{
    type          kqRWallFunction;
    value         uniform 0;
}

turbine_patch28539
{
    type          kqRWallFunction;
    value         uniform 0;
}

procBoundary0to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to3
{
    type          processor;
}

```

```
}

procBoundary1to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to7
```

```
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to2
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```

procBoundary6to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to6
{
    type          processor;
}

}

```

## A.7 0/omega

```

dimensions      [0 0 -1 0 0 0 0];

internalField    uniform 0.001;

boundaryField
{
    inlet
    {

```

```

        type      turbulentMixingLengthFrequencyInlet;
        mixingLength 0.01;          // 1cm - half channel height
        k          k;
        value      uniform 1;
    }
    outlet
    {
        type      inletOutlet;
        inletValue uniform 1;
    }

    down
    {
        type      omegaWallFunction;
        value      uniform 0;
    }

    up
    {
        type      omegaWallFunction;
        value      uniform 0;
    }

    front
    {
        type      omegaWallFunction;
        value      uniform 0;
    }

    back
    {
        type      omegaWallFunction;
        value      uniform 0;
    }

    turbine_patch28539
    {
        type      omegaWallFunction;
        value      uniform 0;
    }

    procBoundary0to1
    {
        type      processor;
    }

    procBoundary0to2
    {
        type      processor;
    }

    procBoundary0to3
    {
        type      processor;
    }

    procBoundary0to4
    {

```



```
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary0to5
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to0
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to2
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to3
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to4
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary1to5
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to0
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to1
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to3
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to6
    {
        type           processor;
    }

    procBoundary2to7
    {
        type           processor;
    }
```

```
procBoundary3to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to1
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
}

procBoundary5to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary5to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary6to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to5
```

```
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary7to6
{
    type          processor;
}

}
```

## B – Dynamic movement

### B.1 constant/dynamicMeshDict

```
FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format       ascii;
    class        dictionary;
    location     "constant";
    object       dynamicMeshDict;
}
// * * * * *
* * * * * //

dynamicFvMesh      dynamicMotionSolverFvMesh;

motionSolverLibs   ("libfvMotionSolvers.so");

solver             velocityLaplacian;

velocityLaplacianCoeffs
{
    diffusivity     directional (1 1 0);
}
```

### B.2 0/pointMotionU

```
dimensions          [0 1 -1 0 0 0 0];

internalField        uniform (0 0 0);

boundaryField
{
    default
    {
        type        empty;
    }

    inlet
    {
        type        fixedValue;
        value        uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    outlet
    {
        type        fixedValue;
        value        uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    down
    {
        type        fixedValue;
        value        uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    up
```

```

{
    type          fixedValue;
    value         uniform (0 0 0);
}

front
{
    type          fixedValue;
    value         uniform (0 0 0);
}

back
{
    type          fixedValue;
    value         uniform (0 0 0);
}

turbine_patch28539
{
    type libAngularVelocity;
    axis (1 0 0);
    origin (0 0 0);
    angle0 0;
    omega 20.94;          //200 rpm
    value uniform (1 0 0);
}

procBoundary0to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to2

```

```
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to2
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary3to6
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary3to7
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary4to0
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary4to1
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary4to5
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary4to6
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary4to7
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary5to0
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary5to1
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary5to4
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary5to7
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary5to6
{
```



```

        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary6to2
    {
        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary6to3
    {
        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary6to4
    {
        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary6to5
    {
        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary6to7
    {
        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary7to2
    {
        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary7to3
    {
        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary7to4
    {
        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary7to5
    {
        type          processor;
    }

    procBoundary7to6
    {
        type          processor;
    }
}

```

### B.3 0/cellMotionU

```

dimensions          [0 1 -1 0 0 0 0];

```

```

internalField    uniform (0 0 0);

boundaryField
{
    default
    {
        type          empty;
    }

    inlet
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    outlet
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    down
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    up
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    front
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    back
    {
        type          fixedValue;
        value          uniform (0 0 0);
    }

    turbine_patch28539
    {
        type          rotatingWallVelocity;
        axis          (1 0 0);
        origin        (0 0 0);
        angle0        0;
        omega         20.94
        value          uniform (1 0 0);
    }

    procBoundary0to1
    {
        type          processor;
    }
}

```

```
}

procBoundary0to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary0to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to3
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to4
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary1to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to3
```

```
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary2to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to2
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to6
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary3to7
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to0
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to1
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to5
{
    type          processor;
}

procBoundary4to6
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary4to7
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary5to0
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary5to1
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary5to4
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary5to7
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary6to2
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary6to3
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary6to4
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary6to7
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary7to2
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary7to3
{
    type          processor;
}
```

```
procBoundary7to4
{
```

```

        type            processor;
    }

    procBoundary7to5
    {
        type            processor;
    }

    procBoundary7to6
    {
        type            processor;
    }

```

## C – Solving

### C.1 constant/turbulenceProperties

```

FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format       ascii;
    class        dictionary;
    location     "constant";
    object       turbulenceProperties;
}
// * * * * *
* * * * * //

simulationType  RASModel;

```

### C.2 constant/RASProperties

```

FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format       ascii;
    class        dictionary;
    location     "constant";
    object       RASProperties;
}
// * * * * *
* * * * * //

RASModel        kOmegaSST;

turbulence      on;

printCoeffs     on;

```

### C.3 constant/transportProperties

```

FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format       ascii;
    class        dictionary;
    location     "constant";
    object       transportProperties;
}

```

```
// * * * * *
* * * * * //
```

```
transportModel  Newtonian;
nu              nu [ 0 2 -1 0 0 0 0 ] 1e-06;
rho            rho [ 1 -3 0 0 0 0 0 ] 1000;
CrossPowerLawCoeffs
{
    nu0          nu0 [ 0 2 -1 0 0 0 0 ] 1e-06;
    nuInf        nuInf [ 0 2 -1 0 0 0 0 ] 1e-06;
    m            m [ 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 ] 1;
    n            n [ 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ] 0;
}

BirdCarreauCoeffs
{
    nu0          nu0 [ 0 2 -1 0 0 0 0 ] 0.0142515;
    nuInf        nuInf [ 0 2 -1 0 0 0 0 ] 1e-06;
    k            k [ 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 ] 99.6;
    n            n [ 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ] 0.1003;
}
```

#### C.4 system/controlDict

```
FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format       ascii;
    class        dictionary;
    location     "system";
    object       controlDict;
}
// * * * * *
* * * * * //
```

```
application      pimpleDyMFoam;

startFrom        startTime;

startTime        0;

stopAt           endTime;

endTime          3;

deltaT           0.01;

writeControl     adjustableRunTime;

writeInterval    1e-2;

purgeWrite       0;

writeFormat      ascii;

writePrecision   6;
```

```

writeCompression off;

timeFormat      general;

timePrecision   6;

runTimeModifiable no;

adjustTimeStep  no;

maxCo           0.7;

libs
(
    "libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField.so" "libOpenFOAM.so"
);
}

```

#### C.4 system/decomposeParDict

```

FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format       ascii;
    class        dictionary;
    location     "system";
    object       decomposeParDict;
}
// * * * * *
* * * * * //

numberOfSubdomains 8;

method            simple;

simpleCoeffs
{
    n              (2 2 2);
    delta          0.001;
}

hierarchicalCoeffs
{
    n              (1 1 1);
    delta          0.001;
    order          xyz;
}

manualCoeffs
{
    dataFile       "";
}

distributed       no;

roots             ( );

```



## C.5 system/createPatchDict

```
FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format       ascii;
    class        dictionary;
    object        createPatchDict;
}
// * * * * *
* * * * * //

// This application/dictionary controls:
// - optional: create new patches from boundary faces (either given
as
//   a set of patches or as a faceSet)
// - always: order faces on coupled patches such that they are
opposite. This
//   is done for all coupled faces, not just for any patches
created.
// - optional: synchronise points on coupled patches.
// - always: remove zero-sized (non-coupled) patches (that were not
added)

// 1. Create cyclic:
// - specify where the faces should come from
// - specify the type of cyclic. If a rotational specify the
rotationAxis
//   and centre to make matching easier
// - always create both halves in one invocation with correct
'neighbourPatch'
//   setting.
// - optionally pointSync true to guarantee points to line up.

// 2. Correct incorrect cyclic:
// This will usually fail upon loading:
// "face 0 area does not match neighbour 2 by 0.0100005%"
// " -- possible face ordering problem."
// - in polyMesh/boundary file:
//   - loosen matchTolerance of all cyclics to get case to load
//   - or change patch type from 'cyclic' to 'patch'
//   and regenerate cyclic as above

// Do a synchronisation of coupled points after creation of any
patches.
// Note: this does not work with points that are on multiple
coupled patches
//   with transformations (i.e. cyclics).
pointSync false;

// Patches to create.
patches
(
    /* {
        // Name of new patch
        name turbine_patch;

        // Dictionary to construct new patch from
        patchInfo
```

```

{
    type cyclic;
    neighbourPatch cyc_half1;

    // Optional: explicitly set transformation tensor.
    // Used when matching and synchronising points.
    transform rotational;
    rotationAxis (1 0 0);
    rotationCentre (0 0 0);
    // transform translational;
    // separationVector (1 0 0);

    // Optional non-default tolerance to be able to define
cyclics
    // on bad meshes
    //matchTolerance 1E-2;
}

// How to construct: either from 'patches' or 'set'
constructFrom patches;

// If constructFrom = patches : names of patches. Wildcards
allowed.
patches (periodic1);

// If constructFrom = set : name of faceSet
set f0;
}
{
    // Name of new patch
    name cyc_half1;

    // Dictionary to construct new patch from
    patchInfo
    {
        type cyclic;
        neighbourPatch cyc_half0;

        // Optional: explicitly set transformation tensor.
        // Used when matching and synchronising points.
        transform rotational;
        rotationAxis (1 0 0);
        rotationCentre (0 0 0);
        // transform translational;
        // separationVector (1 0 0);
    }

    // How to construct: either from 'patches' or 'set'
    constructFrom patches;

    // If constructFrom = patches : names of patches. Wildcards
allowed.
    patches (periodic2);

    // If constructFrom = set : name of faceSet
    set f0;
}*/
);

```

## C.6 system/fvSchemes

```
FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format       ascii;
    class        dictionary;
    location     "system";
    object       fvSchemes;
}
// * * * * *
* * * * * //

ddtSchemes
{
    default      Euler;
}

gradSchemes
{
    default      cellMDLimited Gauss linear 1;
    grad(p)      cellMDLimited Gauss linear 1;
    grad(U)      cellMDLimited Gauss linear 1;
}

divSchemes
{
    default      none;
    div(phi,U)   Gauss linearUpwindV grad(U);
    div(phi,k)   Gauss upwind;
    div(phi,omega) Gauss upwind;
    div(phi,R)   Gauss upwind;
    div(R)       Gauss linear;
    div(phi,nuTilda) Gauss upwind;
    div((nuEff*dev(T(grad(U)))) Gauss linear;
}

laplacianSchemes
{
    default      none;
    laplacian(nuEff,U) Gauss linear corrected;
    laplacian(diffusivity,cellMotionU) Gauss linear corrected;
    laplacian((1|A(U)),p) Gauss linear corrected;
    laplacian(DkEff,k) Gauss linear corrected;
    laplacian(DomegaEff,omega) Gauss linear corrected;
    laplacian(DREff,R) Gauss linear corrected;
    laplacian(DnuTildaEff,nuTilda) Gauss linear corrected;
    laplacian(rAU,p) Gauss linear corrected;
}

interpolationSchemes
{
    default      linear;
    interpolate(U) linear;
}

snGradSchemes
{
    default      corrected;
}
```

```

}

fluxRequired
{
    default          no;
    p;
}

```

## C.7 system/fvSolutions

```

FoamFile
{
    version      2.0;
    format       ascii;
    class        dictionary;
    location     "system";
    object       fvSolution;
}
// * * * * *
* * * * * //

solvers
{
    pcorr
    {
        solver          GAMG;
        tolerance        1e-06;
        relTol           0.01;
        smoother         GaussSeidel;
        cacheAgglomeration true;
        nCellsInCoarsestLevel 10;
        agglomerator      faceAreaPair;
        mergeLevels       1;
        maxIter           50;
    }

    p
    {
        $pcorr;
        tolerance        1e-6;
        relTol           0.01;
    }

    pFinal
    {
        $p;
        tolerance        1e-6;
        relTol           0;
    }

    cellMotionU
    {
        solver          GAMG;
        smoother         GaussSeidel;
        tolerance        1e-07;
        reTol            0;
        cacheAgglomeration no;
    }
}

```

```

        nCellsInCoarsestLevel 10;
        agglomerator           faceAreaPair;
        mergeLevels            1;
        maxIter                 50;
    }

    U
    {
        solver                  GAMG;
        smoother                DILUGaussSeidel;
        agglomerator            faceAreaPair;
        nCellsInCoarsestLevel 10;
        cacheAgglomeration      true;
        tolerance                1e-6;
        relTol                   0.1;
    }

    UFinal
    {
        $U
        tolerance                1e-6;
        relTol                    0;
    }

    "(U|k|omega)"
    {
        solver                   PBiCG;
        preconditioner           DILU;
        tolerance                1e-06;
        relTol                    0.1;
    }

    "(U|k|omega)Final"
    {
        $U;
        tolerance                1e-06;
        relTol                    0;
    }

    k
    {
        solver                   PBiCG;
        preconditioner           DILU;
        relTol                    0.1;
    }
}

PIMPLE
{
    correctPhi                   yes;
    nOuterCorrectors             2;
    nCorrectors                  3;
    nNonOrthogonalCorrectors     0;
    pRefCell                     0;
    pRefValue                    0;
}

relaxationFactors

```

```
{
  fields
  {
  }
  equations
  {
    "U.*"          1;
    "p.*"          1;
    "omega.*"      1;
  }
}
```

## D – Code of the programm

### D.1 libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField.C

```
\*-----*/

#include "libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField.H"
#include "pointPatchFields.H"
#include "addToRunTimeSelectionTable.H"
#include "Time.H"
#include "polyMesh.H"

// *****

namespace Foam
{
// ***** Constructors *****

libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField::
libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
(
    const pointPatch& p,
    const DimensionedField<vector, pointMesh>& iF
)
:
    fixedValuePointPatchField<vector>(p, iF),
    axis_(vector::zero),
    origin_(vector::zero),
    angle0_(0.0),
    omega_(0.0),
    p0_(p.localPoints())
{}

libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField::
libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
(
    const pointPatch& p,
    const DimensionedField<vector, pointMesh>& iF,
    const dictionary& dict
)
:
    fixedValuePointPatchField<vector>(p, iF, dict),
    axis_(dict.lookup("axis")),
    origin_(dict.lookup("origin")),
    angle0_(readScalar(dict.lookup("angle0"))),
    omega_(readScalar(dict.lookup("omega")))
{
    if (!dict.found("value"))
    {
        updateCoeffs();
    }

    if (dict.found("p0"))
    {
        p0_ = vectorField("p0", dict, p.size());
    }
    else
    {

```

```

        p0_ = p.localPoints();
    }
}

```

```

libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField::
libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
(
    const libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField& ptf,
    const pointPatch& p,
    const DimensionedField<vector, pointMesh>& iF,
    const pointPatchFieldMapper& mapper
)
:
    fixedValuePointPatchField<vector>(ptf, p, iF, mapper),
    axis_(ptf.axis_),
    origin_(ptf.origin_),
    angle0_(ptf.angle0_),
    omega_(ptf.omega_),
    p0_(ptf.p0_)
{}

```

```

libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField::
libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
(
    const libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField& ptf,
    const DimensionedField<vector, pointMesh>& iF
)
:
    fixedValuePointPatchField<vector>(ptf, iF),
    axis_(ptf.axis_),
    origin_(ptf.origin_),
    angle0_(ptf.angle0_),
    omega_(ptf.omega_),
    p0_(ptf.p0_)
{}

```

```

// ***** Member Functions ***** //

```

```

void libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField::updateCoeffs()
{
    if (this->updated())
    {
        return;
    }

    const polyMesh& mesh = this->dimensionedInternalField().mesh();
    const Time& t = mesh.time();
    const pointPatch& p = this->patch();

    scalar angle = angle0_ + omega_*t.value();
    vector axisHat = axis_/mag(axis_);
    vectorField p0Rel = p0_ - origin_;

    vectorField::operator=
    (
        (
            p0_

```



```

        + p0Rel*(cos(angle) - 1)
        + (axisHat ^ p0Rel*sin(angle))
        + (axisHat & p0Rel)*(1 - cos(angle))*axisHat
        - p.localPoints()
    )/t.deltaT().value()
);

fixedValuePointPatchField<vector>::updateCoeffs();
}

void libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField::write
(
    Ostream& os
) const
{
    pointPatchField<vector>::write(os);
    os.writeKeyword("axis")
        << axis_ << token::END_STATEMENT << nl;
    os.writeKeyword("origin")
        << origin_ << token::END_STATEMENT << nl;
    os.writeKeyword("angle0")
        << angle0_ << token::END_STATEMENT << nl;
    os.writeKeyword("omega")
        << omega_ << token::END_STATEMENT << nl;
    p0_.writeEntry("p0", os);
    writeEntry("value", os);
}

// ***** //

makePointPatchTypeField
(
    pointPatchVectorField,
    libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
);

// ***** //

} // End namespace Foam

// ***** //
```

## D.2 libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField.H

### Class

Foam::libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField

### Description

Foam::libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField

### SourceFiles

libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField.C

```
\*-----*/
```

```

#ifndef libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField_H
#define libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField_H
```

```

#include "fixedValuePointPatchField.H"

// *****

namespace Foam
{
    /*-----*\
       Class libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField Declaration
    \*-----*/

    class libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
    :
    public fixedValuePointPatchField<vector>
    {
        // Private data

        vector axis_;
        vector origin_;
        scalar angle0_;
        scalar omega_;

        pointField p0_;

    public:

        //- Runtime type information
        TypeName("libAngularVelocity");

        // Constructors

        //- Construct from patch and internal field
        libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
        (
            const pointPatch&,
            const DimensionedField<vector, pointMesh>&
        );

        //- Construct from patch, internal field and dictionary
        libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
        (
            const pointPatch&,
            const DimensionedField<vector, pointMesh>&,
            const dictionary&
        );

        //- Construct by mapping given patchField<vector> onto a new patch
        libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
        (
            const libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField&,
            const pointPatch&,
            const DimensionedField<vector, pointMesh>&,
            const pointPatchFieldMapper&
        );

        //- Construct and return a clone
        virtual autoPtr<pointPatchField<vector> > clone() const
        {

```

```

        return autoPtr<pointPatchField<vector> >
        (
            new libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
            (
                *this
            )
        );
    }

    //- Construct as copy setting internal field reference
    libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
    (
        const libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField&,
        const DimensionedField<vector, pointMesh>&
    );

    //- Construct and return a clone setting internal field reference
    virtual autoPtr<pointPatchField<vector> > clone
    (
        const DimensionedField<vector, pointMesh>& iF
    ) const
    {
        return autoPtr<pointPatchField<vector> >
        (
            new libAngularVelocityPointPatchVectorField
            (
                *this,
                iF
            )
        );
    }
}

// Member functions

// Evaluation functions

    //- Update the coefficients associated with the patch field
    virtual void updateCoeffs();

    //- Write
    virtual void write(Ostream&) const;
};

// *****

} // End namespace Foam

// *****

#endif

```

## E – log file – checkMesh

Create time

Create polyMesh for time = 0

Time = 0

Mesh stats

points: 275939  
faces: 755576  
internal faces: 721838  
cells: 240822  
faces per cell: 6.13488  
boundary patches: 7  
point zones: 0  
face zones: 0  
cell zones: 0

Overall number of cells of each type:

hexahedra: 211485  
prisms: 6552  
wedges: 0  
pyramids: 0  
tet wedges: 42  
tetrahedra: 0  
polyhedra: 22743

Breakdown of polyhedra by number of faces:

faces	number of cells
4	2063
5	1418
6	6164
7	3358
8	2336
9	3378
10	68
11	18
12	3140
15	768
18	32

Checking topology...

Boundary definition OK.  
Cell to face addressing OK.  
Point usage OK.  
Upper triangular ordering OK.  
Face vertices OK.  
Number of regions: 1 (OK).

Checking patch topology for multiply connected surfaces...

Patch	Faces	Points	Surface topology
inlet	2500	2601	ok (non-closed singly connected)
outlet	2500	2601	ok (non-closed singly connected)
down	2500	2601	ok (non-closed singly connected)
up	2500	2601	ok (non-closed singly connected)
front	2500	2601	ok (non-closed singly connected)
back	2500	2601	ok (non-closed singly connected)
turbine_patch	28539	18738	20574 ok (closed singly connected)

Checking geometry...

Overall domain bounding box (-15 -15 -15) (15 15 15)

Mesh (non-empty, non-wedge) directions (1 1 1)

Mesh (non-empty) directions (1 1 1)

Boundary openness (-8.78672e-16 3.10042e-17 -1.2724e-16) OK.

Max cell openness = 8.3837e-16 OK.

Max aspect ratio = 13.9185 OK.

Minimum face area = 0.000880194. Maximum face area = 0.411711. Face area magnitudes

OK.

Min volume = 8.75044e-05. Max volume = 0.236188. Total volume = 26890. Cell volumes

OK.

Mesh non-orthogonality Max: 59.9817 average: 9.02038

Non-orthogonality check OK.

Face pyramids OK.

Max skewness = 1.42542 OK.

Coupled point location match (average 0) OK.

Mesh OK.

End